

# *The* **CLEARING HOUSE**

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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Vol. 32

MAY 1958

No. 9

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**What Teacher Shortage?**

*by DAVID H. GROVER*

**Cancer Education in the Classroom**

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**Straight and Crooked Thinking**

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**Are Special Classes for Slow Learners**

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Religion and the Public Schools . . . Leadership in Group Work . . .  
What About Guidance Classes? . . . I Finally Found a Job but— . . . Pupils  
Have Their Problems Too! . . . How to Make High Grades

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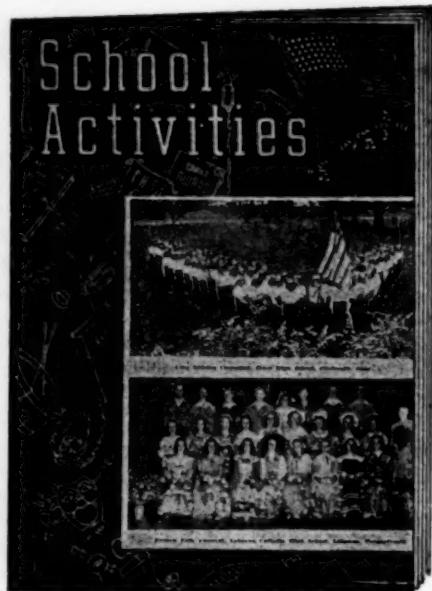
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## *Religion and the Public Schools*

By WILLIAM D. SOUTHWORTH

RELIGION ENJOYS a favorable position in the public schools today. In fact, there is more religious teaching in public schools today than ever before. The stating of this fact is not enough, of course, but proof is easy to find.

If by the term "religion" is meant the dependence of man upon his Creator and his obligations to his fellow men, then religion is an integral part of the school program. To deny the religious aspect of man's nature is to deny part of man; and education is concerned with the training of all the facets of man's nature—the mental, physical, social, emotional, and moral.

By example, teachers today demonstrate the rightness and necessity of religion in the lives of each of us. By the kindness and consideration they show their co-workers and their pupils, they are living the golden rule. By their teaching of natural science, they are pointing always to an Ultimate Cause that is beyond the scope of natural science. By their teaching of conservation

of natural resources, they are delineating man's stewardship of these gifts from God and his obligation to preserve for generations yet to come all those portions not necessary for his own immediate use. By their interpretation of literature, they point out that man is accountable for his actions, and that life without duty, and without the necessity for the doing of good, is life devoid of meaning.

If by the teaching of religion one means the teaching of sectarianism, the answer is that the public schools do not teach religion. Sectarianism has no standing in public schools. In a democracy, along with the concept that the majority rules, goes the necessity of protecting the minority. Therefore, to foist upon nonmajority groups the religious teachings of the group in power is to negate the concept of freedom of religion. And to thunder from the pulpit that American public schools are godless is to speak arrant nonsense. A horse with blinders does not see that there is a right or left. So with the sectarian who identifies the whole of religious teachings in light of his own convictions; for not only is his mode of thinking about religion in public schools contrary to established tradition, but his concept of religion abridges the right of others to train their children in religious matters without interference.

It was in Boston about a hundred years ago that two religious groups competed most vehemently for control of the religious teaching in the public schools. Horace Mann led the fight that withdrew the teaching of sectarianism from the schools. It is

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*One of the controversial issues in education concerns the role of the school in religious education. The issue becomes even more controversial when religious education is changed to religious instruction. Should schools teach religion? Secularly, yes! Sectarianly, no! This is the thesis of the author, who is principal of the Maple Dale School, Joint School District No. 8, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.*

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upon this concept of indifference toward sectarianism that the public school system is based. And it is this freedom from spiritual control by secular men that is the genius of our schools, by far the best in the world as a system.

I believe that the American people do not want their children taught sectarian religious ideologies. They would have God recognized and revered; certainly they would approve the teaching of the historical fact of Jesus of Nazareth; but from the American sense of fair play, I do not believe that they would approve exhorting a Jewish child to accept the divinity of Jesus, nor would they have priest or minister propagate his viewpoint in the public schools to children who would, by law, be forced to be present at such intrusions into personal liberty. That reverence for God and love for one's fellow men must be factors in the personality of every whole man, the majority of American parents would agree. To the extent that teachers clarify relationships for their charges and help children to adjust to a world not of their own making or choosing, the teaching of

moral principles is not only justified, it is demanded.

It is said that religion is far more than the golden rule. Whether this statement is true is of no concern to the public schools. Let parents, who are the guardians of the children, provide for the religious education of their children. But let the public schools remain free from bias or prejudice in religion. As far as the public school teachers know, the golden rule and the Ten Commandments are the substance of religion.

The American public school system stands strong and resolute, a living, continuing manifestation of the American dream of education for all. It is dedicated to the teaching of secular matter to children and owes no allegiance to any religious community or group; thus owes no obligation to religious organizations. Let those who wish parochial education for their children provide it. Let public and parochial systems co-operate in their mutual interest of training children. But let not the issue be confused—the primary role of the public schools is secular education.



## A Touch of Immortality

It has always been a matter of profound wonder and dismay to me that the teaching profession makes only the feeblest efforts to show its attractiveness to young people, that it is apologetic about its position and defeatist about its future.

I have listened with horror to fine, upstanding teachers and guidance counselors openly warning their charges that they should avoid the teaching profession as they would the plague. I have heard them explain its financial inequities, drudgery, and repetitiveness. And in almost every instance I have realized that the teacher was unconsciously telling an untruth, for there were any number of other career opportunities open to him if he wished to choose them. What kept him at this colorless, unexciting task when he could so easily have changed to something else?

I have had all the bitter experiences common to many teachers—financial, intellectual, social—for my teaching career began in the depths of the depre-

sion years and was marked by disappointments, privations, and insults which bordered on the fantastic. Yet, I would be proud and happy if my son were to decide to make teaching his life's work. For I know in my heart, just as most of the complainers do, that there is no greater profession on earth.

Just what is a teacher, anyway? Having been one for years, I have naturally been curious about definitions, and I have never seen a satisfactory one. The dictionary gives very little help. It says, for example, that a teacher is "one who trains or accustoms to some action, who imparts knowledge, gives lessons in, informs, tells, makes to know how, etc." This hardly satisfies or stimulates the imagination. It is too dry, too pedantic, and most of all, too incomplete and inaccurate. My own definition, a brief one, may also not be satisfactory, but for me it comes closer to broad reality. *To me, a teacher is a person with a touch of immortality.*—SAMUEL B. GOULD in the *Kentucky School Journal*.

# What Teacher Shortage?

By DAVID H. GROVER

IN 1935 THE NOVELIST BRUNO TRAVEN observed in *The Treasure of the Sierra Madre* that "anyone who is willing to work and is serious about it will certainly find a job. Only you must not go to the man who tells you this, for he has no job to offer and doesn't know anyone who knows of a vacancy." Today this biting comment might well be applied to many teachers who are looking for jobs they are told exist but who are encountering difficulty in applying for and getting these same teaching positions.

Recently in the pages of this journal [November, 1957, issue, page 140] John B. Crossley expressed a superintendent's reaction to the letters of application he had received from teachers seeking positions in his district. Prof. Crossley pointed out that many applications are ignored by the superintendent's office simply because the teacher's letter reveals undesirable attitudes toward teaching and a lack of communicative ability. Thus, he suggests, poor first impressions may keep the teacher and the position apart, contributing further to the "critical" teacher shortage.

I have no argument with Prof. Crossley's position; his point is well taken. But I should like to examine the other side of the coin, looking at the exchange of correspondence between teacher and administra-

tor from the standpoint of the teacher looking for a position. From this vantage point, judging from the indifferent and dilatory attitude of many administrators toward processing applications, it is quite possible to conclude that the "critical" teacher shortage may be a myth after all.

Several years ago I had a personal encounter with the problem of finding a teaching job at the secondary-school level. Over a period of several weeks I sent out ninety-three hand-typed letters of application to every town of over 7,500 population in eight western states. The results were surprising: two possible openings uncovered in another teaching field and, finally—thank Heavens!—one job offer in my field, which I promptly accepted. Unfortunately I did not keep a complete record of this massive application, for at the time it represented only finding a job, not an indictment of teacher-procurement procedures. My impressions today are, therefore, necessarily general, but they are no less thought provoking than had they been minutely detailed.

Before drawing any conclusions from this experience, let me first point out that conditions should have been quite favorable for the reception of the original ninety-three letters. It was in placement season, March and April, that the correspondence took place. Each letter was typed and the individual addressed by his title. The letters were remarkably similar to Prof. Crossley's "model" letter, differing only in that they were more detailed. They emphasized the training (M.A. degree), experience (two years), interest, certification (standard secondary), and attitude toward teaching which Prof. Crossley found paramount in an application. Stamped return envelopes were not included, however, as I felt that

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*It is obvious that the experiences described in these two articles did not come out of a textbook. They actually happened. The authors lived through them and are the wiser for having done so. Mr. Grover is on the faculty at Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon. Mr. Jaros is at the other end of the country from Corvallis. He resides in Pelham, New York.*

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school districts of this size would have adequate budgets and procedures for answering such application letters.

Perhaps the most striking observation to come out of this correspondence was the fact that many school districts did not seem to be equipped to handle an unsolicited application by mail. It seemed to be an irregular procedure, akin to applying for membership in an exclusive club whose membership is by invitation only. As a result, there was frequently a feeling in reading the administrator's reply that he was saying, "Well, if it'll make you happy, here's an application blank. But don't count on its doing anything for you."

About 80 per cent of the ninety-three letters were answered, although three or four weeks had often elapsed before a reply was received. Most replies contained application blanks, but many of the application blanks had no accompanying letters of explanation. The blanks themselves were a source of confusion and a certain amount of amusement. Some asked for nothing more than the information contained in the original letter; others made much of religious beliefs or personal habits; a number of them were so worded as to give the impression that only normal-school graduates ever applied for teaching positions. All of these application blanks, however, I dutifully completed and returned.

After the one job materialized in June, no further correspondence was received from any school district inquiring as to my availability. And yet I continued to read daily the newspaper accounts of the teacher shortage.

Let me make it clear that this was not a "survey" of hiring practices. This was a genuine bread-and-butter job-hunting campaign, and every one of those ninety-three letters was a sincere expression on my part of interest in teaching in that particular locality.

A "critical" teacher shortage would suggest that an intelligent letter of application from a well-qualified teacher should be one of the most important documents to pass across an administrator's desk. A "critical" teacher shortage, it would seem, would call for a more dynamic approach to procurement than that displayed by the group of administrators encountered here. Many of these administrators obviously had no sense of urgency; there was nothing "critical" about the teacher shortage, judging from their current hiring procedures.

One of two alternatives is suggested by this situation: Let's either stop talking about the teacher shortage, or revise our procurement methods so that the prospective fully qualified teacher can expect prompt and fair consideration of his application.

## I Finally Found a Job but—

By ANDREW G. JAROS

FOR THE PAST MONTH, I have been out of a job—a job to which I had looked forward all my life, a position that I have dreamed about when I felt discouraged. My four and one-half years at college were devoted to taking subjects that would prepare me for my ultimate goal—teaching.

Then in a brief span of three months, I found that I was not yet ready to become a teacher.

What was the trouble? Was I not fit to become a teacher? Did I not know the subject material? Were the students of a different caliber than had been portrayed

and discussed in the educational textbooks? Did my fellow teachers "leave me to the wolves" and let me "sink or swim" on my own? Did the administration fail to follow through on its original suggestions and orders? Yes, all of these may have been factors, but the major contributing factors were lack of experience and too idealistic a picture of teaching.

Experience (or the lack of it, as the case may be) is important. Experience teaches you how to deal with various situations. Each incident helps you become a better and an all-round individual. Without experience, you would live in an idealistic world. I can remember, for example, entering student teaching with the concept that the students were eager to learn and could not wait to understand more clearly the Monroe Doctrine or the theory of ionization. Granted, this was a naïve thought, but I am sure that many beginning teachers feel the same way as I did. Another example—a beginning teacher (in the same boat as myself) felt that she would get 100 per cent "return" for her teaching. She expected the students to grasp immediately and assimilate completely the material that she put before them. Not so, not so! Many of the students took an attitude of "So what? You've got to prove that to me." Frankly, I believe that the average student is of the same mind as the one who said to me, with a sophisticated air, "Frankly, sir, I just could not care less."

I'll grant that every educational professor and every methods course that you have had on your transcript taught you the ideal way to teach the subject. That is fine, but it is a lot easier to *read* this material than to put it into actual *practice*, especially during the first year of teaching. Pity the poor teacher who is all steamed up to rip the

educational world apart, when suddenly he comes face to face with a student who is only marking time until his sixteenth birthday. Oh, happy day for both the student and the teacher! How, Mr. Textbook Writer, do you inspire a student such as this?

What, then, can be done to correct this situation? Perhaps one of the best solutions would be to extend the period of student teaching. Are eight weeks' time or one semester of two or three periods a week enough to enable a teacher to learn something of adolescents and their actions? As one veteran teacher with thirty-six years' experience stated, "This isn't enough time for the practice students to capitalize on a teacher's eccentricities." In addition to lack of time to learn something of the practical aspect of adolescent psychology, such a short time does not permit long-range planning. In addition to an extended period of actual teacher training, young teachers need time to discuss their problems with the student teacher. Perhaps in this way the two of them could contribute to mutual understanding of the problems.

Even more basic, but a little less concrete, than the above solutions would be to warn the beginning teacher not to be disappointed, that teaching is not all sweetness. In order to avoid building up a too-idealistic picture, the tyro should be warned, and warned continually, of the heartaches as well as the joys that come with teaching. Once the student teacher understands that teaching is not all a "bowl of jello," he may enter the profession with an understanding of what he should and should not expect.

As one cynical teacher bitterly remarked, "Expect nothing, and all that is returned will be for the good."

# Leadership in Group Work

By AMEDEO SFERRA

A TRADITIONAL APPROACH to an understanding of leadership has been to describe and identify leadership in terms of the personal traits of the leader. This approach seems to imply that leadership is some kind of rare gift possessed by a small group of people and that this small group of people is able to control a larger group who is not gifted. Biographical and historical studies of famous people frequently attempt to discover traits that distinguish leaders from nonleaders. Analyses of this kind come up with numerous lists of traits which have been held to be essential for leadership. The weakness in these analyses has been that the investigators have shown no evidence of agreement with regard to these "essential" traits. (2) As a result, students in the field of leadership are coming to the

conclusion that certain basic leadership traits are also possessed by many nonleaders.

Research has shown that leadership requirements which are important and effective in one situation may be different in another situation. (9) Thus an airplane pilot who is a good crew leader in normal flight operations will be required to show different functions of leadership with his crew in crash-landing operations. This approach to an understanding of leadership stresses the behavior of an individual and what he does in a particular problem situation. Within this framework, the concept of leadership is understood not in terms of specific traits of the leader but rather in terms of what actions are required by the leader in different situations to solve a problem. (3)

To use the illustration of the crippled plane again: investigation may show that the airplane hostess performed some functions which contributed enormously to the safe landing of the plane. Technically, in this capacity, we may say that the hostess was functioning as a leader. Further investigation may also reveal that other members of the crew made contributions to the welfare of those aboard. These persons too may be said to have performed in a leadership capacity. In accordance with this view, leadership is considered in terms of what each person does in a group to help the group achieve its goals.

## *Functions of Effective Leadership*

Established groups almost always have appointed or elected leaders. Some functions of an effective leader are:

- (1) He helps the group establish and clarify its goals.
- (2) He helps the group develop a course of action.

## LEADERSHIP TYPES DIFFERENTIATED

**AUTHORITARIAN**

1. Policies were determined by the leader.
2. Steps for completing the work were dictated by the leader one at a time. Future direction of activity was not clear to the members.
3. Leader determined what each member should do and with whom he should work.
4. Leader criticized or praised individuals but remained aloof from group participation.

**DEMOCRATIC**

1. Policies were determined by the group. Guidance was given by the leader.
2. Co-operative plans of work were developed at the first meeting. Leader gave several suggestions from which the individuals could choose.
3. Members selected their work partners, and division of work was left to the group.
4. Leader generally praised the group and was a member of the group in spirit.

**LAISSEZ-FAIRE**

1. Complete freedom was given. No leader participation.
2. Various materials were supplied by the leader. He took no part in the work or discussions.
3. No leader participation.
4. No attempt by the leader to be involved with the group. Very infrequent comments from group members.

(3) He keeps the attention of the individuals centered upon the goals.

(4) He clarifies pertinent issues.

(5) He asks for and makes available significant information.

(6) He arbitrates disputes.

(7) He provides encouragement.

(8) He keeps interpersonal relations pleasant.

(9) He provides an opportunity for the minority to be heard.

(10) He asks for opinions and feelings.

(11) He integrates the thoughts and feelings of the group members.

(12) He stimulates self-direction and self-confidence through free and open discussion.

(13) He helps the group achieve its goals.

(14) He assists the group to evaluate its work.

A careful appraisal of the foregoing functions poses perplexing problems for some people. Many of the problems come from a lack of understanding of this type of leadership approach. Because many people are accustomed to authoritarian leadership, they find it difficult to be participative and collaborative. That results are attained somewhat more slowly, particularly in the beginning, is another disturbing factor. Some people also find it difficult to diffuse

their authority and responsibility. Diffusion of responsibility seems to imply some degree of personal weakness or inability to get the job done. Because this approach requires a sharing of power, some people feel threatened and insecure.

*Types of Leadership*

The pioneering studies of Lewin, Lipitt, (4) and White (5) shed considerable light on the effectiveness of these kinds of leadership in terms of productivity, quality of work done, and social interaction of group members. The chart above shows how these three were differentiated.

Significant observations drawn from the activities within these three groups with different types of leaders are briefly summarized below.

1. The behavior of the individuals in the group with autocratic leadership was marked by apathy or various types of aggressive behavior. Scapegoating was frequently used as a mechanism for expressing rebellion and hostile feelings. Group members showed great dependence upon the leader. Very little initiative and individuality were displayed in accomplishing the work.

2. Groups where democratic leadership prevailed were most marked by friendly behavior among the individuals. Aggressive

and hostile actions were at a minimum. Creativity and genuine interest in the work were much in evidence. The quality of work done was significantly better than that done in the other two groups. Over-all quantity of work was also greater.

3. Members in the groups assigned to the laissez-faire leaders were frustrated by the lack of direction. Individual behavior was both hostile and aggressive in nature. Activity was frequently dispersed and disoriented. The quality of the work was poor and productivity was low.

Understanding any form of leadership depends upon how we conceptualize human nature. If we view man as dignified and capable, these beliefs serve as the framework for our attitude toward democratic leadership. On the other hand, human nature conceived negativistically provides the framework wherein autocratic or laissez-faire leadership may thrive and a completely different kind of interpersonal relationship prevails between human beings.

Thus, democratic leadership is not a middle point somewhere between autocratic and laissez-faire leadership but is, rather, a process directed toward the self-realization and the self-direction of each individual. Further, democratic leadership implies that each individual has within him effective and constructive capacities for leadership. (6) The role which the leader of any group assumes in terms of his functions sets the stage for such outcomes as productivity, quality of work done, and personal development of the participating members. No leader, however skillful, can bring about the most beneficial results unless he gets responsible co-operation from group members.

#### *Responsibility of Group Members*

Persons working in a group must realize that they are involved in a process which demands the fullest intelligent verbalization of their suggestions and ideas. This need for effective communication also means that group members must listen to every other

member when different ideas, opposing or supporting, are expressed.

The most significant aspect of group work is that the behavior of the group is co-operative. Co-operation means that all members must feel free to contribute and express opinions freely. It is the right of every group member to disagree with an opinion, but he must also assume the responsibility of telling why he disagrees. A group member assuming the "every man for himself" philosophy leaves little hope of advancing the group's progress.

#### *Group Maturity*

Groups will differ from one another in a variety of ways. The actions required to achieve the goals of one group may be different from those of another. A classroom group has different goals from a club or athletic group; therefore, different leadership functions may be required to achieve the goals of each of these groups. One important aspect of this concept of leadership seems to be that an individual in any group can play a significant leadership role to the extent that he helps the group achieve its goals. The group maintains itself when the members derive satisfaction from the group experience. (8) By contributing his help, each member assists the group to maintain itself.

Research indicates that groups can grow in their ability to work efficiently and that groups can be identified on a scale ranging from immature to mature.

One of the qualities of a mature group is that considerable time is spent in clearly determining a common goal. Although the leader has the prime responsibility of making the group aware of the need to set goals and of helping to establish goals, the final responsibility of goal setting rests with the group as a whole and should be accomplished before the group proceeds further.

Another characteristic of a mature group is that it establishes limits within which it will work. Establishing limits involves (a)

determining the amount of time available to a group, (b) setting a mutually convenient time for meetings, (c) agreeing upon the methods and procedures to be used in achieving the established goal, (d) recognizing the resources available in the group, and (e) defining precisely the problem or task. Group efficiency will develop best if the members do not entirely rely upon the leader to assume the responsibilities of what should be done and how.

A third quality indicative of a mature group impinges upon the ability to keep the discussion pointed in the direction of the established goal. When the discussion wanders, any member should feel free to guide the discussion back into proper channels.

After free and full discussion, the mature group takes steps toward developing a plan of action. This step is called decision making and should involve precise and specific actions which represent a product of the best thinking of the group. Although the final decision reflects the thinking of the entire group and may not coincide completely with an individual group member's point of view, each member should appreciate the fact that his contributions received consideration from all other group members.

#### *Improving Group Procedures*

One of the most important objectives of any group is to improve its operations. Even when the group members appear to be cooperating and the leadership is good, the group may be unable to make progress. What can the individuals in the group do in such a situation?

One way for a group to improve its effectiveness is to collect information about itself. This can be done by appointing one member to serve as an observer of group functions. Acting somewhat in the nature of a mirror for the group, the observer notes the activities which enhance or hamper the group while working through a problem.

The observer does not take down the content of the discussion but rather observes the processes of interaction between members.

For example, if group member A has taken the group off on a tangent, he notes this. If group member B has assumed a position in his discussion which has hamstrung the meeting, the observer makes a note of this. If only six of the nine members have participated in the discussion, this fact is recorded. Toward the end of a session, the observer reports his findings to the group. His report serves to remind the group what has transpired during the meeting by identifying situations which assisted or which hampered the group in its deliberations. (1) One of the observer's most important functions is to get the group to analyze why it behaved as it did.

It should be clearly understood that the observer does not sit in judgment on individual or group actions. By viewing the actions objectively, the observer may be in a position to offer suggestions in terms of how the group members might act differently. In his capacity as observer, this member of the group shares leadership functions with the group leader.

A second method frequently employed to increase group efficiency is the use of post-meeting evaluation sheets. These rating sheets are usually brief and are filled out by the group members at the close of the session. The following is an example.

What was your feeling about today's meeting?

- Very satisfying
- Satisfying
- Partly satisfying
- Mediocre
- Unsatisfying

Comments: \_\_\_\_\_

Brief comments included in the rating sheets frequently help to point up special problems which need the attention of the leader, the group, or both. Comments for

improving group procedures frequently involve suggestions to make definite and more clear-cut decisions, to stay on the topic, to work faster, and to summarize areas of discussion more often. Evaluations also frequently point up member resistance to change. Individual resistance is often subtly expressed. It may be reflected by silence and by leading the discussion off on a tangent. Resistance is also shown by heated controversial argument just prior to the decision-making action of the group.

The identification of procedures or areas of group work which need improvement is in itself not sufficient. Action must be taken. Group efficiency develops best when new ideas are tested to see how they work. Willingness to experiment with suggestions is a characteristic of a mature group.

A third method which may contribute to group efficiency is role playing. Role playing is a technique which permits several to assume spontaneous roles in a problem situation while the others observe what is taking place. Material for role playing may develop out of the observer's report. For example, if his report of the discussion contained an episode where the exchange of ideas bogged down, several members of the group may re-enact the scene while the others observe the action. At the conclusion of the role-playing incident, the participants would discuss how they felt in these roles. The others would report their observations of the participants. Meaningful insights into behavioral sets are often developed by the use of this technique.

The methods suggested above tend to make groups more objective about themselves and help to develop sensitivity in areas which need improvement. This group sensitivity provides insights for increasing ability to formulate effective plans. In addition, it helps develop better work habits for improving individual as well as group functioning.

Joshua Lieberman assessed the value of group work when he wrote:

Group work's outstanding contribution to the field of education is the experience that it provides in social living. Its participants function in intimate, well-integrated groups, share in pleasures, accomplishments, defeats, and responsibilities, and they experience on a smaller scale many of the problems in human relations and achievement that confront the larger community. (7)

#### Summary

The productive democratic leader is not indifferent, passive, and a "do-nothing" figure provoking anarchy, general confusion, and aggression among the group members. He is, rather, energetic, interested, involved, and everlastingly helpful. If his group is to be successful, the democratic leader must consistently exert his skills in order to help the group achieve its goals. Effective leadership is active, intense, and attentive.

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# Cancer Education in the Classroom

By CHESTER S. WILLIAMS

A DECADE AGO, classroom discussion of a topic such as cancer might well have been taboo. Today, by the time pupils have reached the upper grades of junior high school they have acquired the background in general science and health classes necessary to appreciate the nature of the problem. Pupils of this age level also have a deep concern about their own personal health problems, and this carries over to an interest in the broader problems of public health. The junior-high-school science or health teacher, using the latest information, is in the best position to introduce basic facts about cancer. In the senior high school, the biology and health teacher can further the pupils' increasing understanding of the subject.

How the teacher presents the problem of cancer in the classroom depends upon his individual feelings toward cancer as an illness. Teachers, like everyone else, vary in their reactions toward disease conditions, and pupils react to the teachers' feelings. Knowledge of the disease and wholesome attitudes toward it are basic to providing pupils with accurate information and helping them to adopt sound health habits, attitudes, and behavior.

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*The phrases bear repeating: "The chance of a young person's getting cancer is small. . ." But, "What a student learns about cancer may help save the life of a member of his family or a friend." This, however, is only one cancer truth in this article by the director of public education for the American Cancer Society. Formerly, Mr. Williams was director of adult education in the United States Office of Education and an official with the United States Department of State.*

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Intensive and sustained educational efforts of the American Cancer Society have succeeded in dispelling many unfounded fears and superstitions about cancer. It is now the exception rather than the rule for a person to believe that all cancers are fatal. Millions of people have learned that many cancers can be cured if found in an early stage and that this requires periodic checkups and prompt medical attention to any danger signal that may mean cancer.

Much of this lifesaving knowledge has been conveyed by teachers to students and through students to families. But the gap between actual and potential cure rates is still large. Too many get to their doctors too late.

Cancer is an ancient scourge, recorded in history as early as 1500 B.C. But only in this century have facts and figures been assembled effectively enough to help significantly in the control of cancer. Increasing accuracy of reports on causes of death enable us to know what the cancer toll is year by year. The accuracy of these figures over the past two decades provides a sound basis for projecting the death rates not only for cancer in general but for various sites. Accordingly, the American Cancer Society estimates that there were 250,000 deaths caused by cancer in 1957, or a rate of about 147 per 100,000 population. It can predict that with the increasing and aging population and increasing rates of cancer death, about 5,000 more will die of this disease in 1958.

Calculating cure rates with similar precision is impossible, but careful studies of patients who live without a recurrence of the disease for five years after its detection and treatment do enable specialists to show an encouraging upward curve of cures. These studies show that roughly 1 out of 3

who get cancer are now being saved, compared to only 1 out of 4 about a decade ago. Thus around 38,000 more people can expect to win out over cancer this year than a few years ago.

This is a wonderful dividend in lives for all the effort made to close the gap between the actual and potential cure rates over the past years. Some of these dividends are undoubtedly due to the educational effort which brought more cancer cases to medical attention in the earlier and more curable stages than in previous decades. But there are still an estimated 75,000 more lives that could be saved in a year if the maximum chance were given to the medical profession. That is the continuing challenge to a balanced public and professional education effort.

To teachers it means holding the ground gained, by enlightening the new generations as they come along; and taking new ground, by reaching millions with life-saving knowledge for the first time. The loss of life in cases where early detection and treatment would have resulted in cures is a needless waste of our human resources. Fear of cancer, resulting from individual and group fear of the "unknown," often produces community attitudes which obstruct cancer control. Enlightened and healthy attitudes can be developed through education.

Because the prime concern of the American Cancer Society is saving lives from cancer, we have concentrated much of our efforts in fighting the three major cancer threats—lung cancer, breast cancer, and uterine cancer.

The rapid rise of mortality due to lung cancer, particularly among men, has been a source of grave concern not only in this country but also abroad. For this reason, the society has allocated a large percentage of its research funds to the many phases of the problem in etiology, epidemiology, pathology. At the present time the only promising approach for the control of lung

cancer is prevention. All the facts produced to date are consistent with heavy cigarette smoking's being one of the principal causes. Dr. David A. Wood, professor of pathology at the University of California and former president of the American Cancer Society, stated in a recent address: "The society has continued its policy of informing the public of the developments in this field as they occur. . . . Without directly advising against smoking, it has taken the position that persons in deciding whether to smoke should have access to all of the facts and that, perhaps, they will arrive at this decision in conjunction with advice from their family physician. . . . Ideally and desirably, a movement to discourage young people from smoking should spring spontaneously from the teen-agers themselves, armed with such factual information as might be available."

Breast cancer is the cause of the greatest number of cancer deaths among women. The society's national lifesaving program concerning breast self-examination has been under way for five or six years, and has resulted in many doctors' seeing breast cancer at an earlier stage than ever before, when the chances for cure are the best.

Now the society is launching an all-out program against uterine cancer, the No. 2 cause of cancer deaths among women. Our goal is virtually to wipe out deaths from cervical cancer. Much of the success of this effort will depend upon public and professional education and the recruitment of hundreds of trainees for cytotechnology.

Recently the A.C.S. co-operated with the National Science Teachers Association in making available to some 9,000 biology teachers in high schools a copy of Dr. Charles S. Cameron's pamphlet, "Cell Examination—New Hope in Cancer." This presents the story of the cell examination—its history, various uses, facilities existing today, the many places in which the technique is being used, and proof of its success. The pamphlet also outlines the

need and opportunities for cytotechnologists and the qualifications and training required.

While about half of those who will be afflicted with cancer can be saved by prompt application of present knowledge, the other half of the millions who will get cancer must rely on research to find the final answer—or at least much better answers on diagnosis and treatment than we have today. A large-scale research program is supported by all groups and agencies interested in cancer control. These include the American Cancer Society, the National Cancer Institute, and other fund-granting agencies. These organizations make grants for research. The National Cancer Institute also operates research laboratories. The American Cancer Society's comprehensive research program involves more than 1,000 scientists in some 146 institutions and laboratories throughout the country. There are at present 403 separate activities covered by grants made by the A.C.S. during the September 1956-57 period. These cover a wide field—chemotherapy, chemistry, physiology, radiology, virology, surgery, cytology, nutrition, and many others.

While the chance of a young person's getting cancer is small, the American Cancer Society's school program is based on these three important teaching truths:

What a student learns about cancer may help save the life of a member of his family or a friend.

Learning about cancer will help guide him as he grows older. Knowing what cancer is and what to do for self-protection may later save his life.

Knowing the facts may stimulate him to join the fight against this ancient scourge

as a scientist, physician, or medical technician.

To the teacher this is also a challenge. The American Cancer Society has developed materials and aids to assist in this educational activity. "Teaching about Cancer" is a guide to source materials and information to help secondary-school administrators and teachers in developing instruction on cancer suitable to their curriculum requirements. Included is a listing of source material, pamphlets, exhibits and posters, visual aids and films, available both from the A.C.S. and other sources. Teachers may obtain this guide and A.C.S. source material without charge from the local A.C.S. unit or the division office in their area.

The programs of the American Cancer Society are carried out almost entirely by its 2,000,000 volunteers. It is through the unselfish and devoted labors of these volunteers that the society's activities are constantly increasing and broadening. As each division is autonomous to a marked degree, there is no nationally defined administrative outline for the development of the school program. At times it is the school itself which makes the first move toward bringing cancer education to students. A first step usually is to arrange with the society's local division or unit for meetings to familiarize school personnel with cancer control programs and available materials.

Cancer education for students is an important facet of the American Cancer Society's program for reaching as many people as possible with its cancer-control programs and lifesaving message. For this reason each division and unit of the society is eager to co-operate with teachers in developing cancer education programs.



Education is the vehicle by means of which the cultural heritage of a nation is transmitted from generation to generation. I believe, however, that education also is the instrument by which a culture is advanced and the life of a people improved from generation to generation. Teachers are a part of this whole process.—ALONZO G. GRACE in *Phi Delta Kappan*.

# SALUTE TO YOUTH

By ALEX H. LAZES

IN SPITE OF THE LONG TRADITION OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY, each generation must recreate the actualities of democracy in order that this tradition may be maintained. Opportunities can be made available to our youth to face real challenges in democratic living. By participating with others in vital community activities and by helping to solve community problems, youth will learn to respect the worth of individuals, to enjoy the sharing of common interests and concerns, and to believe that the problems of modern life can be solved by the application of intelligence.

Schools throughout New York City are providing opportunities for youth to play an active role in the life of the community. Although we hear a great deal about unsocial acts on the part of youth, there are numberless examples of socially desirable activities by boys and girls which merit recognition but do not always receive it.

The need for public recognition of the fine traits and endeavors of the vast majority of New York's teen-agers was recognized by

Mayor Wagner in his decision to proclaim a "Salute to Youth Week" as an official city-wide observance. This positive approach to responsible citizenship attracted wide public support and commendation. The Board of Education of the City of New York cooperated fully in this program. Notices were sent to the schools requesting information regarding outstanding community service projects undertaken by the students. Schools whose service projects were selected as exceptional were given awards.

The story of community service by youth in New York City is a heart-warming one. Thousands of hours have been voluntarily donated to nursery schools, hospitals, homes for the aged, institutions for the blind, blood-bank centers, and many other institutions. Many thousands of toys, books, tables and desks, Christmas gifts, clothing and other necessary articles have been collected, repaired, and donated. The recipients have not always been those close to the participating school. Frequently aid has been sent to children thousands of miles away through CARE, UNESCO, Junior Red Cross, and other agencies.

## EDITOR'S NOTE

*The author wrote us a letter accompanying his manuscript. He said, "Would you be interested in a description of what young people are doing to serve their community? There is an urgent need to give recognition to the constructive activities of adolescents when the newspapers are giving front-page space to the few whose activities are destructive." We agree that the positive should be accented. Furthermore, we agree that the author and his associates are doing a fine job in the New York City public school system, where he is administrative director of School Civic Clubs for the Bureau of Curriculum Research.*

One school donated 1,000 hours of community service as follows: 100 hours spent in entertaining the men in a veterans' hospital, 100 hours devoted to educational assistance in a home for the deaf and mute, 125 hours in the pediatric division of a neighborhood hospital assisting with physical therapy, 475 hours of clerical help in another hospital, 200 hours contributed in organizing a social and dance program in a home for the blind, 250 hours devoted to helping laboratory assistants in making urine and blood analyses, and 190 hours in the laboratory of another hospital.

In another school, the students formed a community service group of 100 members

who served the community in three areas. They planned recreation for children in neighborhood centers, assisted the blind, and helped care for the sick. Working in four community centers these young people assisted the staff in organizing group activities, such as games, and arts and crafts. In an institute for the blind, the girls read and wrote letters for the patients, took them for walks, shopped for them, talked and listened to them. In hospitals and homes for the chronically ill, they fed patients, helped nurses, and served as assistants in the offices and laboratories.

An extensive school-community program was launched in one school to promote brotherhood and neighborliness through co-operation with the National Council for Christians and Jews. A leadership group went to the N.C.C.J. camp for orientation courses and reported back to the school upon return. They participated in meetings dealing with "human relations" and helped to organize discussion groups. This experience led them to initiate activities which resulted in improved faculty-student relations as well as improved relations among the students of various racial and religious backgrounds.

In still another school, racial tensions began to develop, especially between the Negro and white students. In an effort to do something constructive about this problem, the students formed an interracial committee, which met daily under the guidance of the dean of boys. The aim was to map an educational program to promote better student relations. One main object was to convince the students that physical fights did not settle differences and that the reputation of the school was important to each student. Though discipline was left to the deans, the committee visited all the guidance classes, stressing the values of good citizenship. Poster contests were held dealing with the brotherhood theme. Members of the committee visited classes and individual teachers, and on request helped to work

out special problems. A group appeared before the Parents' Association and the entire faculty to acquaint them with the work done. Students on the committee interviewed those involved in fights and helped to settle differences. The principal of the school has vested this group with the necessary authority and co-operation so that it can do its work successfully.

Fourteen high schools have been participating in a do-it-yourself camp project. This is called the Turkey Mountain Project and is sponsored by the Child Service League. A camp is being built by and for teen-agers on land which is owned by the league.

The project started with a piece of land which was acquired by the Child Service League, 124 acres of wooded countryside near Yorktown Heights in Westchester County, an ideal spot for young people to spend hours in enjoyment and constructive creation. It is a place where ordinary tools such as axes, saws, hammers, and nails are being used instead of lead pipes, zip guns, and switchblade knives, where juvenile decency is uppermost in everyone's mind, where co-operation and teamwork will complete a project consisting of thirty buildings.

Each high school has a junior board of directors consisting of four student delegates. The board organizes Turkey Mountain groups in each of the co-operating schools and makes all the necessary arrangements. They plan every project and carry it out themselves, with the help of the Child Service League only when needed. So far roads have been built; campsites have been cleared away; tool sheds, a bathhouse, a kitchen, and two small buildings have also been built. Each weekend, a different high school plans to go to Turkey Mountain and take over its respective chores. Although supervisors are around to help, the students do all the planning for the weekend. They prepare the menus, do all the shopping, prepare and cook the food.

There are many organized groups in the New York City elementary and secondary schools that devote considerable time and effort in helping improve the school and community. The Student Council, Junior Red Cross, and School Civic Clubs are among those that are particularly devoted to service of this nature.

Among the many projects undertaken by the more than 200 School Civic Clubs, the most successful ones have dealt with encouraging respect for public property, improving the appearance of the school and community, promoting safety, improving behavior, encouraging leisuretime activities, developing democratic human relations, strengthening school and community relations, co-operating in civilian defense, and making international friends. By taking an active part in planning and carrying out these projects, boys and girls are getting firsthand experience in practical citizenship.

A résumé of the activities sponsored by the Junior Red Cross will indicate the amount of service donated by our youth toward helping others: Thousands of candy cups, napkins, and tray mats were made for local hospitals. Bed sheets, towels, robes, washcloths, dolls, and afghans were made for children's hospitals. Thousands of Christmas stockings are filled each year with candy and gifts. Teen-agers have devoted countless hours to such activities as fund raising, clerical work, assisting with blood banks, and hospital service. In addition, members of the Junior Red Cross entertain hospitalized children and adults.

Only a sampling of constructive civic efforts undertaken by young people has been described in this article. These samples of activities can be multiplied by the hundreds of schools in New York City that are providing similar opportunities for boys and girls to play an active role in serving their community.

## Using the Test Score

What we are saying to teachers is this: "Don't accept test scores provided by your school psychologists or testing personnel—make them prove the scores." What is the pattern of functioning of a pupil's intellect?

The pattern of functioning of an intellect probably needs some explanation. It might most easily be explained in test terms. Most intelligence tests regardless of their form are constructed so as to tap the several generally accepted areas of intellectual functioning. Usually scores are obtainable for each portion of a test battery. In some areas, a subject may do very well; in others, he may do poorly. To illustrate, let's say there is a two area test designed to measure a subject's general fund of information and his arithmetic ability. Suppose his information score, by itself, would yield an I.Q. score of 60 and his arithmetic alone yielded an I.Q. score of 120. His total I.Q. score is an average of the two which is 90. This score would say he possessed low average intellectual ability. It's not so—he's a bright and

perhaps a potentially superior pupil. Something is interfering with his acquisition of general knowledge. This nicely opens a series of "why" questions which should help the teacher to free his intellect for effective and efficient use in all areas of functioning. When a teacher knows the potential of his pupils, he can easily rise to the challenge of bringing it to realization. Equally so, if the test evidence (not the scores) and the teacher's evaluation of the pupil yield no shred of evidence for better than a borderline defective level of functioning, then the teacher can be spared the fruitless effort of trying to develop an inadequate intellect.

Make the tester prove the score. Insist that he describe the pupil's pattern of intellectual functioning. This understanding of a child's intellectual development, coupled with the teacher's great advantage of daily observations, will enable the teacher to arrive at those rare common sense solutions to many of the learning problems of his pupils.—WILLIAM H. BROWN in *Educational Leadership*.

# *Editorial*

## Writing for Publication in *The Clearing House*

¶ We are grateful to the hundreds of writers who have submitted manuscripts to us since we assumed the editorship three years ago. Although we lack space to accept all of them for publication, our editorial board reviews each contribution carefully. This takes time and accounts for some delay in sending word to contributors.

¶ Our editorial board is not overly critical; it tries to be fair. We realize that *The Clearing House* has served junior and senior high schools for over thirty years. Maintaining a high quality of magazine has been a CH tradition. It is a challenging assignment to keep CH as good as ever.

¶ But we do have some ideas on improving manuscripts. Here are some down-to-earth suggestions to article writers:

¶ 1. Rework your manuscript until its message is crystal clear. If possible, try it out on someone for critical comment before final reworking. It is our opinion that few writers find first drafts good enough.

¶ 2. Squeeze out the water. Eliminate unnecessary words. Tighten sentences and refrain from rambling.

¶ 3. Avoid platitudes, please. Webster says a platitude is "a dull, stale, or insipid truism." If the definition is valid, you can understand why triteness is an enemy of good writing. We agree with Francis Bacon's statement that "reading maketh a full man . . . and writing an exact man."

¶ 4. Stay away from "should articles." By that we mean "the teacher should," "somebody ought to," "the parent must." "Should articles" tend to reveal your value judgments on what others ought to do. We like factual reporting better, or "can" or "may" instead of "should."

¶ 5. Omit "very." Of all unnecessary words, this is tops. We are not enthusiastic about "very." Wide use of the word is seldom justified, except for space filling.

¶ Humbly, we offer these five little words for your consideration in writing for publication—rework, water, triteness, should, very. We suggest that you do the first and eliminate the other four.

¶ Please continue to send us your manuscripts. That goes for the veterans and the new-timers. If you have something of value to say, by all means write it out, up, or down for good old *Clearing House*.

—ELSWORTH TOMPKINS

# *Block-Time or Core Practices in Minnesota Secondary Schools*

By  
NELSON L. BOSSING and JOHN F. KAUFMAN

THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM in the United States has undergone numerous changes over the years. Probably the most significant changes have taken place in response to the increased recognition by the schools of their responsibility to meet the needs and interests of all youth. The "core" idea has come into prominence as one of the more promising of these newer curriculum developments.

The survey described here was conducted in 1957 for the purpose of discovering what is the status of "core" in the public secondary schools of Minnesota. In order to determine this status, an attempt was made (1) to discover the prevalence of core-type classes in Minnesota secondary schools; (2) to distinguish among the variety of programs which exist under a block-time arrangement; (3) to determine the direction in which the Minnesota core curriculum is moving; and (4) to serve as basis for a comparison of trends in Minnesota's core curriculum with similar studies elsewhere.

## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Achtung! Junior-high-school teachers and principals! Here is a summary of a survey of block-time scheduling practices in Minnesota junior and senior high schools. The findings reported are important in showing the trend toward (a) further development or (b) shrinkage in core-type programs. The senior author is one of the nation's authorities on secondary education in general and on the junior high school in particular. He is professor of education at the University of Minnesota. The associate author is teaching assistant at the same university.*

A questionnaire was sent to every public secondary school in Minnesota. A stamped return postal card was attached to expedite the replies. A total of 564 schools were sent questionnaires, from which a total of 548 postal card replies were returned. This amounts to a 97 per cent return. Of the 548 returning replies, a total of 79, or 14.4 per cent, indicated they had core programs. Tables I, II, and III (on this and the next page) indicate the breakdown according to classifications of organization, location, and enrollment.

TABLE I  
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS REPORTING A CORE CURRICULUM BY ORGANIZATION

Organization	Total No. of Schools Responding	No. of Schools Reporting Core	Percent Reporting Core
Junior high (7-9)	82	27	32.9
Senior high (10-12)	54	5	9.3
Undivided and junior-senior high (7-12)	368	41	11.1
Four-year high (9-12)	40	6	15.0
No reply	4	—	—

TABLE II  
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS REPORTING A CORE CURRICULUM BY LOCATION\*

Location	Total No. of Schools Responding	No. of Schools Reporting Core	Percent Reporting Core
Metropolitan	45	28	62.2
Suburban	18	7	38.9
Rural	485	44	9.1

\* Metropolitan refers to the first-class cities of Minnesota: Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth. Suburban refers to those communities contiguous to first-class cities. Rural refers to all communities not classified as first class or suburban.

TABLE III  
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS REPORTING  
A CORE CURRICULUM BY ENROLLMENT

Enrollment	Total No. of Schools Responding	No. of Schools Reporting Core	Percent Reporting Core
1-274	239	20	8.4
275-439	127	8	6.3
440 and over	179	51	28.5
No reply	3	—	—

The figures from Table I indicate that the core curriculum is most popular in the junior high school, followed by the four-year high school, then the undivided and junior-senior high school, and lastly the senior high school.

Grace S. Wright, of the United States Office of Education, conducted a nationwide study entitled *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: an Inquiry into Practices*, 1949. Wright found in her study that the core was most popular in the junior high schools, with 15.8 per cent reporting a core curriculum, followed by undivided and junior-senior high schools reporting 6.4 per cent, senior high schools 3.5 per cent, and regular high schools 1.4 per cent.

Both the Minnesota study and the study by Wright indicate quite decisively that the core is most popular in the junior high school.

An attempt was made in this study to determine if a difference in popularity of core existed among the metropolitan, suburban, and rural schools. Table II does indicate a rather striking difference. Just over 60 per cent of the metropolitan schools report a core organization as contrasted to 38.9 per cent for the suburban and 9.1 per cent for the rural.

Further, the figures from Table III indicate a fairly sharp difference in the popularity of the core between schools with large enrollments and those with small enrollments. Both the enrollment category 1-274, with 8.4 per cent reporting a core organization, and the enrollment category

275-439, with 6.3 per cent reporting a core, are well below those schools with an enrollment of over 440 which reported 28.5 per cent with core. Between these findings and those of Wright's study there is a noticeable similarity. Wright found that 2 per cent of the schools under 500 enrollment and 11.3 per cent of those with enrollments over 500 reported core curriculums. Both studies indicate about a five-to-one ratio in favor of schools with large enrollments.

Of those schools not having a core, twenty-nine indicated that their schools once had core but abandoned it. Seventeen of these schools reported that inability to secure qualified teachers accounted for their dropping of the program. Seven schools indicated that scheduling difficulties provided too big a barrier. Changes in administration, crowded school conditions, teacher objections, and lowered scholastic achievement were some of the other reasons offered for dropping core. Only one school mentioned community dissatisfaction with the core program as a reason for abandonment of it.

Thirty-eight schools now without a core plan to inaugurate some form of block-time scheduling for the next school year, and eighteen indicate that they are considering the possibilities of inaugurating some form of a core. Twenty-two of the thirty-eight report that the subjects to be taught will retain their identity in the block class with or without some correlation. Ten schools report that in their block classes, subjects will be unified or fused around a central theme or through units of work or problems stemming from one or more of the subjects in the block class. Communication and other skills will be used as needed in the development of the units. Two schools report their program will center about predetermined problem areas based upon the personal-social needs of adolescents—both felt needs and needs as society sees them. Two schools indicate they will develop programs where the specific units of work emerge from the

personal and social problems facing youth. The teacher's responsibility to the class will include pupil guidance and he will make extensive use of teacher-pupil planning and the problem-solving approach to classroom work.

Most of the "core" innovations planned for next year represent only slight departures from the conventional subject matter teaching. This is as it should be; very few schools should move directly from straight subject-centered teaching to a true core situation.

A follow-up questionnaire was sent to the seventy-nine principals of schools reporting core curriculums. Sixty-seven principals (85 per cent) returned these questionnaires. Questionnaires for teachers of core were also sent to every principal. Two hundred sixty teachers returned questionnaires out of an estimated 308 (84 per cent).

Tables IV and V (this page) give an indication of the number of returns from the four types of school organization and the three categories of enrollment.

Out of a total of fifty-seven schools having seventh and eighth grades, forty-six reported core programs in the seventh grade, while thirty-eight reported core in the eighth grade. Out of a total of sixty-two schools having ninth grades, twelve reported core programs. Out of a total of forty-two schools reporting tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades, five reported core programs in the tenth, three in the eleventh, and three in the twelfth.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF RETURNS BY CORE PRINCIPALS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND ORGANIZATION (TOTAL 67)

Organization	Enrollment		
	1-274	275-439	440 and over
Junior high (7-9)	3		22
Senior high (10-12)			5
Undivided and junior-senior high (7-12)	10	7	15
Four-year high (9-12)	1		4

TABLE V

NUMBER OF RETURNS BY CORE TEACHERS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AND ORGANIZATION (TOTAL 260)

Organization	Enrollment		
	1-274	275-439	440 and over
Junior high (7-9)	4		152
Senior high (10-12)			9
Undivided and junior-senior high (7-12)	15	16	.53
Four-year high (9-12)	1		10

Thus there seems to be little doubt that the core in Minnesota is most popular in the lower grades.

Over one half the schools indicated that their core classes met ten periods a week, seeming to infer that they meet five days a week for a two-hour time block. The six-period week is the next most popular arrangement, with the eight-, eleven-, twelve-, and fifteen-period weeks all approximately equal in popularity.

A number of different names are given block-time classes in Minnesota. Fifteen schools designate their program as block program, twelve as social studies—English or language arts, eight as common learnings, seven as double period, six as core, and four as social studies. Other names listed were social living, orientation, and speech and literature.

Social studies and language arts or English were reported to be the subjects replaced in the block period in all but a very few cases. In two schools, science and mathematics were replaced by a block program. In several schools social studies, English, and mathematics or science were replaced, indicating probably a three-hour time block.

A number of questions were formulated to determine what some of the practices and problems were in Minnesota schools reporting core-type curriculums.

Guidance is considered by most writers in the field of curriculum to be an integral part of the core teachers' functions. Seventy-

seven per cent of the schools with core reported that their core teachers had specific guidance functions. In sixty-five per cent of the schools responding, the core teacher acted as a direct representative of the guidance department and did individual counseling under the supervision and/or with advice from a counselor. The core teacher, in 68 per cent of the schools responding, was responsible for collecting anecdotal notes, samples of work, and observations and comments for the cumulative file, but left direct counseling to the guidance personnel. Many schools indicated that their core teachers did individual counseling, yet most of these same schools said they left direct counseling to the guidance personnel. This can be explained by assuming that the guidance personnel handled only the more difficult problems. Fifty-three per cent of the schools reported that referrals to the administrative office or to the guidance office on a particular student were sent on to that student's core teacher. Cumulative records were kept in the core classroom in 23 per cent of the schools reporting. Thirty-five per cent of the schools reported that the core teacher was kept informed of the academic and behavioral record of his students in their other classes through a definite referral system.

One of the major purposes of the core curriculum organization is to allow teachers more time to become acquainted with a smaller number of students. Thirteen per cent of the schools reported that their core teachers are assigned the same group of students for two or more years.

How are pupils assigned to their core classes? The majority (63 per cent) of schools reporting made no attempt at ability grouping. In fact, 10 per cent of the schools made a deliberate attempt to balance their sections. Other practices mentioned by one or two schools include a gifted section with the rest grouped by ordinary administrative means, a gifted and retarded section with the rest grouped by ordinary administrative means, a grouping by interest, and a

planned heterogeneity group plus a retarded section.

Thirty-four schools out of 62 responding said they did provide furniture designed for group work. Forty-two per cent of the schools report that in their core classes several reference books had replaced complete sets of textbooks. Sixty-four per cent said there was evidence of a marked increase in the use of school library facilities since the introduction of core programs.

Teacher-pupil planning is a necessary part of any true core class. Eighty teachers stated that their teaching units originated from working with their classes. In addition to this, thirty-six teachers indicated that their teaching units originated from school-district or core department committees plus their own individual work in combination with their working with each of their classes. A total of 116 teachers out of 257, or 45 per cent of Minnesota core teachers, indicated some degree of teacher-pupil planning. Ninety-one teachers, or 35 per cent, said their teaching units came from their own individual work. The remaining 20 per cent named a great variety of sources including some combination of the above. Some of these involved a degree of teacher-pupil planning. Only seven teachers indicated that units were not used. The question "When are these units prepared?" revealed that eighty-four teachers prepared their units before the units were taught. The remaining 166 teachers responding said their units were prepared concurrently with the teaching of the units or that they used a combination of the above techniques.

What are the bases for forming working groups within Minnesota core classes? Teachers were asked to note the frequency with which interest areas, reading levels, intellectual ability, and distributing known leaders were used as the bases for group work. All of these bases proved popular with Minnesota teachers. Interest areas proved the most popular base, with 181 teachers out of 257 indicating this was used

from often to nearly always on the point scale. It was always used by thirteen teachers and never used by eleven. Distributing known leaders among the groups was used from often to nearly always by 143 teachers. It was used always by twenty and never by twenty-one teachers. Reading level was used frequently by 143 teachers, always by seven and never by twenty-six. Intellectual ability was used from often to nearly always by 127 teachers, always by ten, and never by thirty-three.

Another question in this area was, "What is the approximate percentage of core class-time the average student in your class spends in group work?" Seventy-eight out of 256 replying, or 30 per cent, stated that 10 per cent or less time was spent by the average student in group work. One hundred and one teachers, or 39 per cent, reported 11 to 25 per cent; 58 teachers, or 23 per cent, reported 26 or 50 per cent; 17 teachers, or 7 per cent, reported 51 to 75 per cent; and two teachers, or less than 1 per cent, reported over 75 per cent of the average students' time was spent in group work.

The method of marking used by schools reporting core curriculums may give some indication of how close they come to approaching true cores. Seventy-four per cent of those schools responding said that separate grades are given, one for each subject area in the core. Fifteen per cent reported that one grade is given for the total block-time period. Six per cent of the schools reported that more than two grades are given to indicate the development of each of several functional behaviors. The remaining 5 per cent reported some combination of the above grading systems.

Wright, in her 1952 study, reported that 67 per cent of the schools responding required separate marks for each of the subjects unified in the core. Wright offered the explanation that many colleges and universities require separate marks on the transcripts sent to them. No attempt was

made in the Minnesota survey to determine the reasons behind the schools' marking system.

An attempt was made to characterize different types of core curriculums by use of four descriptive statements which principals might check individually or in combination. It was hoped that this might give some insight into how far Minnesota has advanced toward a true core. Of course, it was recognized that there are many different conceptions of what makes up a true core. But most present-day writers in the field of curriculum feel a true core must disregard subject boundaries and that problems should be developed without regard to classifications according to traditional subject content.

Out of sixty schools responding, nineteen said that in their block program each subject retained its identity, that is, separate subjects were taught with or without some correlation (type A). Seven schools indicated that subjects included in the block class were unified or fused around a central theme or through units of work or problems stemming from one or more of the subjects in the block class, and communication and other skills were used as needed to develop the units (type B). Eighteen schools said their program consisted of some combination of the two types mentioned above. No schools checked alone the type which had this description: "Predetermined problem areas based upon the personal-social needs of adolescents—both felt needs and needs as society sees them—determine the scope and sequence of the core program. Subject matter is brought in as needed in working on the problems; they will, however, choose activities within the problem area" (type C). Two schools checked the type of program which was felt to characterize a true core. This stated that "the specific units of work emerge from the personal and social problems facing youth. The teacher's responsibility to the class includes pupil guidance and he makes extensive use of teacher-

pupil planning and the problem-solving approach to classroom work. The goal of the core programs is to develop in the youth those personal and social responsibilities and competencies needed for successful living in a democratic society" (type D). Fourteen schools stated that their school had programs which were a combination of two of the four types, with type C or D mentioned as one of the types in the combination.

Principals were also asked to indicate what type of program they planned for their next school year. The results of this question indicate that Minnesota schools will move closer to a true core. Twenty

schools out of fifty-eight responding, or 34 per cent, state that their programs will have either individually or in some combination types C and D. Only nine schools, or 16 per cent, said they will use type A, as compared to 32 per cent who indicated they had used type A. Twelve schools, or 21 per cent, said they will use type B, as compared to 12 per cent who indicated they had used type B. These results may be taken as evidence that the majority of Minnesota schools which use some form of block-time organization do not have true core curriculums, but that there does seem to be a definite trend in this state in the direction of a true core.

## The Quarrel of the Mountain with the Wood

*By LOUIS GINSBERG  
Paterson, New Jersey*

The mountain quarreled  
With the wood,  
Which molested  
Its solitude.

"If my presence  
So much grieve you,"  
Replied the wood,  
"Then I will leave you."

And so the forest  
Arose one day—  
Or was it an age?—  
And wandered away.

The barren mountain  
Felt at length  
That storms and torrents  
Pillaged its strength.

The worn-out mountain,  
Alarmed, kept trying  
To summon the wood  
To keep from dying.

Until the forest  
Trooped back one day—  
Or was it an age?—  
And planned to stay.

The mountain rejoiced:  
"No more will I flout you.  
I found that I cannot  
Live without you."

# Pupils Have Their Problems Too!

By MARY GALLMAN

CONSTANTLY WE TALK ABOUT OUR PROBLEMS as teachers of teen-agers. And often we forget that those teen-agers have their problems too.

But how are we to discover the myriad problems of students? Problem check lists furnish one answer; the English teacher, another. Indeed an English teacher has a peculiar opportunity of getting into the world of the adolescent and discovering the problems which perplex him. Better still, in the teacher's hands is sometimes placed the opportunity of helping her students either to accept their problems or to solve them. In this article I should like to report on some of my own adventures into the world of my students and their problems.

The first of these adventures began when a tenth-grade class was studying a short-story unit featuring adolescent problems.

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Once we asked a secondary school principal whether he was confident that he knew the honest attitudes of his students toward the school and their studies. He said that he did because he had been principal of the school for twenty years. This didn't satisfy us. We requested permission to speak to some of the teachers and to some of the pupils, none of whom we knew previously. It soon became obvious that not even the principal knows the real attitudes of students by virtue of length of service in an administrative position. In fact, pupils often tell the principal what they believe he wishes to hear. Hence, to get next to pupils' real opinions is quite a job. The author, who is an English teacher in Greenwood, South Carolina, illustrates the point of our comment: to learn the attitudes of pupils, it is necessary first to gain their confidence.*

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We discovered that the characters in the selections had their problems, ranging from financing a love affair to accepting the limitations of one's abilities. From purely fictional problems, we turned to personal problems. Had the students ever known people who had had problems similar to those that we were discussing? What were some of the problems that boys and girls of their age faced?

After we had discussed these problems, I suggested that they might like to consider in class some of their own problems. On a slip of paper, which he might sign or not as he chose, each student was to list the problem in which he was interested. If anyone had a problem that he would like to discuss with me personally, he was to list it and mark it personal.

Almost three-fourths of the class submitted problems. We devoted a part of several class periods to a discussion of possible solutions. Frankly when I looked over some of the problems, I despaired of finding a possible answer. But those tenth-grade students came up with amazingly good suggestions. They even offered an answer as to what to do when Older Brother got the car that had previously been promised to Younger Sister. During the discussion of the problem of being overweight, a thin girl who seldom spoke in class was led to inquire, "But what must I do to gain weight?" The suggestions submitted to the student troubled by obesity were given to her in reverse. One of the most valuable outcomes of the discussions was that the group came to realize that many of them shared the same problem and that no individual need feel different and set apart just because he had a problem.

Pleased with the outcome of these discussions, I began to ask myself how parallel

reading required of all students might be directed to helping them think intelligently of their own problems. I found that the following questions helped them organize their thinking concerning the problems faced by the characters in the novels or biographies which they read: (1) What problem did the chief character face? (2) What was his solution to the problem? (3) Was the solution satisfactory or unsatisfactory? Give reasons to support your conclusion. (4) From reading of this problem, did you learn anything to help you in solving your own problems?

The answer to the last question often indicated that students were doing serious thinking on their personal problems. One student, uncertain about becoming a director of religious education or a teacher, wrote in her report on the book, *A Man Called Peter*, "One of the many things that I learned is that you don't have to be a director of religious education by name to be a worker for God."

From writing discussions of this type on books that they had read, students were easily turned to consideration of their own problems. They actually seemed to enjoy the prospect of tackling this theme assignment. To avoid possible embarrassment, I suggested that if any student did not wish to discuss a personal problem, he might present the problem of a friend or an acquaintance. Further the students were told that themes marked "confidential" would not be read in class.

The following questions were given to help them organize their thinking: (1) Describe a problem that you or a friend faces. (2) What are the possible solutions to this problem? (3) Which solution will probably prove most satisfactory? (4) What is your decision? Or what should be the decision of your friend? (5) What will be the consequences of this decision?

The results of this assignment proved so satisfactory that I have repeated it with succeeding classes. A study of topics treated

by three classes of seniors reveals the diversity of problems troubling them. These students were not unlike their elders. The most frequently mentioned problem was that of time. Seven discussed this subject—some unable to find time to perform the duties demanded of them, others unable to find time for the social activities in which they longed to participate. Many of their problems were related to personal habits. Control of temper led the list, with three writing on it as their number one problem. These seniors were also concerned with nail biting, self-consciousness, worry, and fear of the dark. One confessed his weakness to be laziness around the house. Another found trouble keeping her room in order. Several were concerned with personal appearance. A girl told of treatments for white spots on her face. "Facial bumps" or acne troubled the boys, and obesity the girls.

Family difficulties were discussed. Five elaborated on their difficulties with brothers and sisters. Noisy neighbors troubled one family, and of course there were the perennial questions of who was to use the family car and when and how often they might go out through the week. Four students had their financial troubles, varying from wasting money at the county fair to repaying a \$150 loan.

A number of the problems were related to the school and its activities. Two found difficulty in English, one in typing, and one in math. One needed to learn how to study effectively, and another had been rebelling against doing his parallel reading. He analyzed the cause of his own difficulty very well indeed—inability to read. Theme writing proved the Jonah of three. One girl was interested in ways and means by which the school band might raise money. Getting up and getting ready for school was the topic of one theme. A boy discussed the problem that he had faced of choosing between two high-school offices. The responsibility of calling the signals at football

games weighed heavily on the shoulders of another boy. Three were puzzled about what college to attend, six were debating the question of choice of career, and one wanted to find a part-time job. Other problems included speaking in public, arranging fruit in a grocery store, keeping a motor scooter in repair, planning meals, and the need to expand one's circle of intimate friends.

Reading these themes, I got a chance to peek into the minds of my students, and I was sometimes amazed at what I found. Several students who were apparently calm and self-sufficient were really perplexed.

What are the values of such an assignment? First, the teacher learns just a little bit of the thinking of her students. Of course, she must recognize that many do not discuss their most pressing problems. The only student whom I ever heard to declare that he could not find a problem to discuss was my most emotionally disturbed

student. I did not press the assignment but let him write on another topic.

The majority of students, however, seem to enjoy the assignment and even profit by it. In many cases, writing of a problem has a therapeutic effect and lifts the weight of the problem from the student's mind. Many students follow through their decisions and solve their problems or learn to live with them. Often the teacher can make a helpful suggestion or point the student to a source of help. Still another value of an assignment of this kind is that in considering one problem objectively, a student may also get a clue as to how to go about solving other problems—problems that he considers too intimate to confide to the pages of a theme.

Most important of all, theme assignments of this type enable the student to understand the teacher. Commas, conjunctions, and clauses are not her only concern. She is vitally interested in boys and girls.



## Humanities and the Liberal Arts

Our strength lies in the freedom of choices that we give our scholars and teachers. In the years ahead our nation will need the advice and leadership of clear-thinking men and women who can make intelligent decisions. The liberal arts and humanities can give them greater depth, clearer vision and wider understanding of many of the pressing problems in today's world.

Consciously or unconsciously, steering so many of our gifted pupils into scientific training tends to build up the idea of an elite group. There is real danger lest the swing toward the technical fields might make the liberal arts majors feel slightly inferior.

Unfortunately some faculty members as well as pupils fall under the same spell. Teachers in the non-scientific fields—in the liberal arts particularly—often tend to be less aggressive, less positive in expressing themselves than their scientific colleagues. And with all the current emphasis on science, there lurks the fear that those who teach history and related subjects will end up as "poor relations" in the faculty family.

This calls for a positive approach rather than an attitude of irritation and defeatism. Constantly, there arise opportunities to speak up in order to help maintain some sort of educational equilibrium. Both in the intimacy of private conversations and on the forum of public discussions teachers must be ready to state the case for the humanities and the liberal arts.

Actually there should be no gulf between science and engineering on the one hand and the liberal arts on the other. Scientists could profit from the broad approach of history, literature, the fine arts. Conversely, it wouldn't hurt those in the humanities to become better acquainted with the latest in technical developments.

Today, much is made of the phrase, "togetherness." . . . Every segment of teaching in America has the prime objective of preserving and improving our democratic form of government. And as Winston Churchill once said: "Democracy is the worst form of government, except for all the others which have been tried."—WILLARD J. GAMBOLE in *Social Education*.

# *How to Make High Grades*

By EDWIN MAXWELL BRIDGES

PSYCHOLOGICALLY, the college campus has become the nervous center of America. Tension mounts, sales of pacifying pills climb, and psychiatrists' offices serve as "study" rooms for increasing numbers of collegians.

Why? What produces this apprehensiveness over mental energy among our collegians? The answer may lie in anxiety over making the grade or, to be more precise, the A or B grade.

Informal empirical studies of collegiate grade-pacers by the author reveal Ten Principles for achieving A's and B's with a minimum of worry:

(1) To the first regular classroom meeting, wear a conservative tie and a well-pressed suit. This has proved a sartorial must for all honors' candidates. The collegiate neophyte, as he sits in the front row, will discover that the psychological effect on the professor is amazing.

(2) Carry with you an ominous-looking brief case and place it conspicuously on top of the desk next to you. If your financial resources are limited, or if you are parsimonious with your funds, withdraw several bulky texts from the library and take them to class, thereby creating an "I-am-a-reader-of-great-books" atmosphere.

(3) Volunteer for the first class project. This is known as "projecting" and is equivalent to giving the instructor a sought-for pat on the back.

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*This is a how-to-do-it article plus tongue in cheek. It makes for good learning if you read between the lines. And, as you see, the lines are quite narrow. The author is dean of boys in the high school at Griffith, Indiana.*

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(4) Study the professor for his pet expressions and favorite words. Such items as "a là," "zero point," "as you know," "now more than ever," "relative to," "historically speaking," "atrophy," and "attrition" can be regurgitated on examinations and term papers. In grading your efforts, the naïve pedagogue will subconsciously overrate you. For who among us is critical of himself?

(5) Maintain a concerned and interested look as the professor disconnectedly discusses the day's lesson. He is human and, consequently, wants to feel important. You might even charter a Professor-Ego-Building Club on your campus.

(6) Speak only when you have something worth while to say, and document your discussion with statistical or textbook evidence. Avoid unnecessary patter, as the class will categorize you as a shallow-thinking eager beaver.

(7) Find out the professor's office hours and arrange a conference. Encourage him to talk—a man will listen all day if he is talking about himself and go away thinking that you are a brilliant conversationalist. (The author is indebted to numerous psychologists for this principle; nevertheless, it is quite effective on them as well as on their colleagues.)

(8) Memorize passages from assigned references and include these quotations in your answers to test questions. This supplies a note of authenticity to your paper if you can quote from established authorities.

(9) Do a research paper. An extensive bibliography and a plethora of footnotes impress any research specialist.

(10) For mental insurance, compile and maintain an up-to-date list of reliable "ists" (e.g., druggists, therapists, psychologists).

# Straight and Crooked Thinking

By R. RODERICK PALMER

ALTHOUGH THE TEACHING of straight thinking is greatly emphasized by both traditionalists and progressives in education, the method by which this objective is to be achieved differs very sharply in the two groups. For many of the traditionalists, reliance is to be placed mainly upon the teaching of rhetoric and formal logic. For the progressives it is to be placed mainly upon the furnishing of daily experiences in solving problems by the scientific method. To a neutral it would seem that both kinds of training have their advantages. Even if it is true, as many conservatives maintain, that the use of the experimental method of science has very limited possibilities in the curriculum as a whole, it is still possible to make clear to the pupils its great advantages where it can be used. And if it is true, as the progressives maintain, that the study of formal deductive reasoning does little to improve the reasoning powers of the student, it is still possible that it can make him more keenly aware of the kinds of fallacious reasoning against which he is to guard himself in studying the conclusions of others. It may serve him well in his dealings with the paid propagandist.

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*The matter of constructive thinking on the part of secondary-school pupils depends on what goes on in class. If the teaching method emphasizes memorization or regurgitative learning, there is little likelihood that pupils will be stimulated to be critical. Especially valuable in this article is the analysis of measures which have proved effective in the teaching of critical thinking. The author is an instructor in the College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus.*

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Ambiguity is probably the commonest of all sources of difficulty. We are led to erroneous conclusions because the meaning of certain words shifts during the discussion without our noticing that it has done so. Ambiguities may sometimes be discovered by condensing an argument and reducing it to the form of a syllogism. A syllogism may be defined as three propositions so related that one of them is involved or implied in the other two. In sound syllogistic reasoning the terms used must be employed in the same sense throughout. Other sources of difficulty are hypostatization, circular argument, special pleading, false analogy, false assumptions, feelings that dictate thinking, and cause-effect relationships.

False disjunction is one of the commonest of the misleading sorts of reasoning in education. We argue that we must either stress classical education or vocational education, and that since vocational education is inadequate, we must revert to classical or liberal education. The many other kinds of education possible to use we ignore. We argue that since the function of the university is not to develop athletes or to build character or to produce the fine gentleman or to train for a particular vocation, it must be to produce the thinker. The error again lies in assuming that we have stated all the alternatives.

Sometimes our error lies rather in ignoring intermediate stages. As Dewey has said, "Mankind likes to think in terms of extreme opposites. It is given to formulating its beliefs in terms of *Either-Ors*, between which it recognizes no intermediate possibilities. When forced to recognize that the extremes cannot be acted upon, it is still inclined to hold that they are all right in theory but that when it comes to practical matters circumstances compel us to com-

promise. Educational philosophy is no exception. The history of educational theory is marked by opposition between the idea that education is development from within and that it is formation from without; that it is based upon natural endowments and that education is a process of overcoming natural inclination and substituting in its place habits acquired under external pressure."<sup>1</sup>

Just as in politics we force a choice between democracy and communism, without inquiring how much these doctrines have in common and how much each might assist in removing the deficiencies of the other, and a choice between private enterprise and public ownership, without considering the possibility that for some industries one might be better and for other industries the other. So in education we insist on a choice between doctrines as wholes. The remedy is not compromise. It is not a resort to eclecticism. It lies in a more careful study of the facts as they are, and inquiry as to whether all alternatives have been considered and all intermediate stages examined.

We need to stop debating whether a given man is normal or subnormal in intelligence, as if these stages were sharply divided, and to recognize that intelligence shades off very gradually from genius to imbecile in degrees that can be represented by an unbroken curve. We need similarly to recognize that there is the same unbroken transition from those called sane to those called insane.

Educationists with their love for clear distinctions have too long attempted to settle vexing questions by choosing among spacious alternatives. Even in their researches they frequently go no farther than to demonstrate that one familiar method of teaching is better than another, ignoring the possibility that a third or fourth is immensely superior to either. Conclusions

drawn from the method of disjunction should always be stated with their limitations. They indicate only that one alternative is better than another, that one alternative must be accepted if we can be sure that all the others have been duly considered, and so on. Ordinarily we cannot from such evidence draw any conclusions that are forthright and unqualified.

So far we have been concerned with developing ability to evaluate the thinking done by others. Let us now consider the possibility of developing the pupil's ability to think for himself. Perhaps in the long run one of his best defenses against propaganda and crooked thinking is an offense, an independent investigation of his own problems.

That an improvement in thinking power can be effected seems to be indicated by the results obtained in experimental schools. The investigations by J. W. Wrightstone and by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year-Study of the Progressive Education Association appear to indicate that when the development of power in constructive thought is taken as a definite objective and intelligently striven for, such development can be secured. As the belief in the "constancy of the I.Q." fades out before other experimental evidence, hope for a contrived enhancement of the average man's capacity for constructive thinking seems more and more thoroughly justified.

Teaching children to do constructive thinking has meant in experimental schools giving them practice and help in carrying on the kind of investigations that we have just seen to be engaged in by persons whose thinking has proved successful. As they make such investigations, the pupils are studied by their teachers, their individual deficiencies with reference to any of the various stages of thinking are located, sometimes with the aid of objective tests, and remedial measures are undertaken. Thus the teaching of thinking appears to proceed very much like that teaching which has

<sup>1</sup> John Dewey, *Experience and Education* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938), p. 1.

been found valuable in reaching other educational objectives. Although such work is comparatively new and is still in the experimental stage in many schools, we may delineate a few of the measures which have so far proved most effective.

(1) To develop the pupil's ability to recognize and formulate problems, he must be given a considerable amount of experience with unorganized materials and encouraged to state clearly the problems arising therefrom. Such experiences can be furnished by the shop or laboratory, the excursion, the film, the interview, or by written statements giving incomplete descriptions and inconsistent explanations. Practice in stating problems clearly can be given the pupil by such devices as asking him to look for topic sentences in his reading; placing him in contact with confused accounts of an issue in which he has become interested; allowing him to study the irrelevancies of court testimony and the many restatements of the issue by the attorneys in the case, and similarly to study the records of hearings of legislative committees and the attempts of the committee members to keep the issues in sharp focus; permitting the pupil to act as chairman of discussion groups and to practice the same art himself; encouraging him to state clearly the problems torturing a confused and futile character in fiction; assisting him to state clearly the issues in propaganda which deliberately attempts to divert attention to irrelevancies more likely to win approval; and using similar devices commonly employed in progressive schools but ignored in those traditional schools which believe it the duty of the teacher or the textbook to supply a clear initial statement of the problem that is to be attacked.

(2) To develop the pupil's ability to collect data bearing on the problem before him, it is necessary to develop his power to observe accurately and his skill in using printed sources of information. But since "the essential condition of better seeing is

definiteness of purpose,"<sup>2</sup> the requisite sharpening of observation will usually be attained through that clarification and amplification of his problem which we have just described. Skill in the use of printed materials may be developed by systematic instruction and practice.

To develop the ability to use the library intelligently, the teacher may construct practice exercises involving questions on the classification of books and the order in which they are arranged in an open-shelf library, on the intelligent use of the card catalogue, on the principal reference books and source books, and on general type of content characteristic of the leading periodicals.

(3) To develop the pupil's ability to originate promising hypotheses, it is necessary to supply at the very minimum the time in which reflection may take place. Though this fact seems too obvious to be stated, many teachers rush so rapidly from one topic to another, in an effort to "cover the ground," that no real opportunity for thought is provided. Since fertility in ideas depends partly on native ability and partly on familiarity with the field in question, it is obvious that if we cannot increase our inherent brightness we can at least increase our knowledge of relevant facts.

A valuable habit to develop is that of occasional complete relaxation. After the problem is put aside, say many men of originality, and you are engaged in something else, excellent ideas often come to you as from a clear sky. Many times has this tale been told. A relaxed state of the organism may be important in mental as in athletic achievement. A class enterprise that is engrossing enough to absorb the pupil's efforts for several weeks may thus be expected in the course of time to produce some first-class ideas. If it is impossible to force the appearance of ideas—as indeed it is—at least certain of the conditions can be

<sup>2</sup> M. T. McClure, *How to Think in Business* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1929), p. 51.

provided which, experience has shown, are likely to be favorable to the appearance of ideas.

(4) To develop the pupil's ability to trace out the implications of hypotheses or tentative solutions the teacher, after calling attention to the way clever investigators have followed out "leads," may well permit class discussion of proposed solutions for a problem within the group's interests, in order that the richness of relationship of the simplest proposal may become evident. Here again the teacher will need to restrain his impatient urge to teach more facts. For if the pupils learn how to solve problems systematically, they learn something much more important than other people's solutions of given problems. They learn a method which may enable them to solve their most important problems after all factual instruction has been forgotten.

Class discussion allows the various implications of a given proposal to be discovered and pointed out by the various types of persons within the group. What is not seen by one may be seen by another. But precautions must be taken against making the pupils dependent upon discussion for ideas. In some schools this sort of work is carried so far that individuals are unable to think alone. To counteract such a tendency, it is desirable that for some of the problems the individual pupils be required to work toward a solution without the aid of others. Practice in following out the implications of proposed solutions is as necessary as practice in any other phase of intellectual work.

The qualities most important to develop here are thoroughness and persistence in exploring all possibilities. These are an aspect of intellectual honesty. They insure a careful and systematic examination of the implications of an hypothesis to reach an understanding of all that is involved in it. They prevent hasty conclusions and thoughtless action that may be harmful either to oneself or to others.

Through the study of sound and unsound syllogisms, the pupil may be helped to distinguish, in certain types of cases, those implications which are genuinely involved in a hypothetical solution and those which are only apparently involved. Attention may be called both to characteristic errors in deductive reasoning and to intentional distortions of the issue to lead attention away from sound inferences.

(5) To develop the pupil's ability to verify his conclusions, the school must keep closely in touch with real problems. Preschool and kindergarten children rarely fail to test out their theories. Ideas there arise in concrete situations and are immediately put into effect, and their soundness or unsoundness is at once evident. As problems become more bookish and further removed from reality, the tendency to verify one's decisions is lost. Conclusions are reached but not acted upon or otherwise checked up.

To restore the normal tendency to verify one's conclusions by some sort of overt action, it is primarily desirable to change the curricular emphasis from a series of subjects to a series of activities, projects, enterprises, investigations, and the like. This shift means the frank acknowledgment that to "master the race experience" as a set of facts is no longer possible and that such an undertaking should be replaced by the attempt to learn the most successful method by which these facts have been acquired. This method involves the validation of conclusions.

The teacher must also abandon outright that Herbartian variety of teaching in which, after the examination of a considerable number of concrete instances, the solution is assumed to roll out into clear sight, to be obviously true, and to wait not for validation but only for "application." It is necessary to recognize that the most obvious Herbartian "generalization" is in need of verification before it can be given more than tentative acceptance.

How this verification can be done is clear enough in those activities in which we make or do something—informal constructions, more technical shop practice, still more technical laboratory experimentation. It is clear in mathematics. The difficulties lie in the social sciences and the humanities. But here, too, improvement on current practice is possible.

In the social sciences the teacher can make evident the desirability of verification by encouraging the pupils to carry over their own conclusions from the schoolroom and try them out whenever possible in the community. The teacher can do much toward this result by lending particular encouragement to those proposed activities which promise to eventuate in conclusions that will be thus testable. He can also be of help by enabling the pupils to leave the school building and make a test of their ideas by lending aid to local improvements. So the conception of money saving through co-operative buying may lead to the formation of buyers' co-operatives in the community, as the study of health may lead to better nutrition in the homes or to the establishment of a medical clinic.

In the humanities the pupils can be shown that masterpieces are not masterpieces because they meet certain rules of writing or painting or the like, but because they achieve certain effects, attain certain objectives. Their effectiveness in reaching these objectives can be tested only by producing them and trying them out on those for whom they were made.

When young people have been habituated by daily practice to the use of systematic reflective thought and have found by experience how sound ideas originate and how they are verified, they are probably better prepared as citizens than by any other kind of training we might give them. They are independent of the propagandist in certain areas because they can think their own problems through. They are constructive.

They can not only fend against the crooked thinking of others but forge out a piece of straight thinking of their own. They will probably be able to stand on their own feet and they will probably be willing to co-operate with others in adult life as they have done through their school life.



## The "Stepchild" of Public Education?

The junior high school has been categorized as "the stepchild," "the tramp steamer," "the forgotten segment" and "the afterthought" of our system of public education. This is understandable. It has had to be satisfied with wearing the secondhand or handed-down clothing of the senior high schools. Its watered-down senior high school curriculum provides little individuality and few or no purposes which are unique. It has, in many communities, been so unimportant that an old high school building, ready for discard, has become its home. Its program has had to fit a building which was not designed to provide good educational experiences for early adolescents. Its teachers are those who were trained mainly to work in the senior high school

with a scattering of those trained for elementary schools. Many of these teachers are in junior high schools, not because they want to be, but rather as a result of administrative shuffling. Many are simply marking time until they can be reassigned to a senior high school or an elementary school. There is little hope in the near future for relieving this personnel problem because teacher education institutions are also generally ignoring the junior high school. Few institutions have teacher education programs which basically recognize the purpose and functions of the modern junior high school and few are developing a program to educate teachers and leaders who can implement those purposes and functions.—MAURICE R. AHRENS in *Educational Leadership*.

# What About Guidance Classes?

By WILLIAM D. ROCHE

SHOULD A GUIDANCE CLASS be a part of a counseling-guidance program? Those of us who are counselors at North Phoenix High School say, "Yes," and we say further that the teacher-counselor concept of counseling is the one to which we subscribe. It is our belief that after four years of planning and hard work we have come close to developing a fairly good guidance class as an integral aspect of a counseling-guidance program that functions effectively. Like most other worth-while courses, the guidance class, we believe, must be planned and structured if satisfactory results are to be achieved. Here is a brief description of this part of the program.

The incoming high-school freshman has as one of his required freshman subjects a course called "group guidance." The instructor of this course is concurrently the student's counselor and remains such during the student's four years in high school, hence preserving the counselor-counselee continuity. The objectives of this group-

guidance course are many. One of the most important ones is the understanding of the student it affords to the counselor who will work with the counselee until he is graduated from high school.

During the first year of our present program four years ago, it became obvious that a guidance class which devoted a great deal of time to mere talking sessions did not constitute a workable approach. Such an approach presupposes a background of experience that most high-school freshmen simply do not possess. Consequently, the counseling department set to work to develop a well-structured, substantial course which would give the student something which he could bite into and which at the same time would provide him with an emotional climate enabling him to relax and face his problems with a minimum of tension. The course would, it was felt, also give the student the feeling that in addition to being guided he was also accomplishing and learning.

Determining the contents of a group-guidance course is never easy. Nor was it for the counselors at North Phoenix High School. Convinced, however, of the superiority of the teacher-counselor concept in guidance, we set out to construct a course that would satisfy the student's present interests as well as attain the long-time goals not always grasped by the adolescent freshman mind. It was decided that for daily work we would require the use of a large loose-leaf notebook. This notebook, the students were told, would in many cases be regarded as a textbook. The topics to be covered in a group-guidance course are so many and so varied and often so intangible that the serious use of a notebook helps the student to simplify and to systematize his work.

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*When, as in most foreign countries, all high-school students take exactly the same program of studies, the need for educational guidance is less clearly established than in this country. Here, students choose many of the subjects they take, and therefore guidance is as essential as teaching. And, of course, there are many aspects of guidance—personal, educational, vocational. How best to inject guidance into the life-blood of the school is a question on which we do not all agree. Our author, who is counselor at North Phoenix, (Arizona) High School, suggests that we need a guidance class as part of the daily schedule.*

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The course was divided into the following units: school orientation, study habits, history and value of education, colleges and their requirements, personal and social development, vocational information, contemporary history, and community life. With generous use of several good textbooks, frequent movies, weekly use of a current-events newspaper, and an array of standardized tests and inventories, we succeeded in making the course come to life. While space does not permit an elaborate delineation of these units, suffice it to say that several conditions must be met if freshman students are to be motivated in a guidance class. Students must at the very outset be given an appreciation of the course's goals and purposes. The student must realize that the objectives of the course are to give him an understanding of himself so that he may plan his future with some intelligence in terms of his own make-up. It is of the essence that the student constantly be made aware that the knowledge he is gaining of himself through studying elementary psychology and occupations, through becoming aware of his potentialities and aptitudes by taking standardized tests, inventories, and so on—that all this knowledge serves the real purpose of helping him to plan a life and select an occupation which will assure him satisfaction and happiness.

At least a week near the end of the school year should be devoted to a recapitulation of what has been learned by the student during the previous nine months. This summing up helps the student to see in what ways the work of the previous nine months affects him as an individual. It also helps to give him a mental frame which in the ensuing three years will make itself manifest when he returns to his counselor for conferences. It helps to give him a realistic and informed approach to himself which will eventually enable him to decide upon the most suitable pursuits and training for himself.

An attempt should be made early in the year to give to the parents of the student a clarification of the purpose of the guidance class. At North High this has been accomplished first by an informative letter to the parents at the beginning of the school year and second by parent-counselor social get-togethers sponsored by the P.T.A. early in the school year, at which the counseling-guidance system is explained. Parents are given the opportunity to ask whatever questions they may wish. We take for granted that all the parents know the meaning of the terms "counseling" and "guidance" as they are used in today's schools. Too frequently, however, the parent has no concept of the purposes or values of counseling and guidance.

The value of a guidance class in today's large high school cannot be overrated. First, such a class serves as an excellent point of departure for an effective counseling-guidance program. Perhaps more than any other class, this class tends to counteract the impersonality that exists in today's big high school. The guidance class affords the counselor an opportunity to help the freshman student integrate his many, often perplexing daily experiences. For many freshmen it is an opportunity to attain a perspective of achievement as it affects them.

The counselor has to create in his guidance classes an emotional climate that will cause the students to seek his services when they need them. A guidance class may be the vehicle through which the counselor is given an opportunity to achieve this rapport with students.

Not the least of the values that accrue to the high school with a good guidance class as a part of its counseling-guidance program is the strengthening of the school's public relations, for the guidance class can be the channel through which parents can understand what today's school is doing at a time when their youngsters are launching out on their high-school careers and beginning a new chapter of their lives.

# The Reluctant Learner and the Radio Workshop

By  
MARIE E. O'CONNOR

'WHEN THE REFUGEES from the regular English curriculum were shunted to my radio workshop classes, I fumed, for certainly the creative aspect of this particular elective called for the superior student rather than one who had found the ordinary road of English studies hazardous going. My program included two classes of radio workshop. I looked at my students and inspected their records. The majority were D students. Many had taken practically every grade of English twice and were to receive a high-school diploma with but six terms of English to their credit.

All of them did not read (anything they were not compelled to); some of them could not (at least not with any degree of efficiency). All of them did not write; some of them could not (even with any degree of legibility, much less accuracy, much less originality). All of them were lazy.

This was my material. And a good teacher takes what she gets—plus a deep breath—and proceeds. Since I did have a small measure of success with these groups, I should like to share some of the specific procedures that led to the students' work-

ing and to their enjoying that work.

Let us first consider what should be the general aims of any course in any high-school curriculum. We are probably in agreement that they should be the following:

- (1) To inculcate a sense of responsibility.
- (2) To give an opportunity to know the joy of measurable accomplishment.
- (3) To exercise the ability to work with others harmoniously.
- (4) To develop qualities of leadership and the attendant virtue of willingness to follow.

The more specific aims of this elective course I shall enumerate later, but the foregoing are the broad aims of education. Bearing them in mind, I began the task of organization in each class.

Project #1 was an individual assignment designed to accustom the student to timing and to microphone technique as well as to disclose to me some facets of his personality. (Since I planned to divide the class into three groups, it was necessary that the individuals "balance" each other.) It was also an opportunity for the entire class to learn of the particular talents and interests that might be used in group projects. The aims of any English class were also present in our desire to have poise, pleasant and audible tones, good enunciation and pronunciation, and interesting material. (We didn't try to accomplish all this in project #1, however.)

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*This article has to do with motivation of the student who underachieves. It may be that underachievement involves two kinds of pupils—those who can but won't, and those who can't. The class which provided the material for this article was a radio workshop and it deals with functional procedure in the field of motivation. The author is a teacher of English at Weequahic High School, Newark, New Jersey.*

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practice a natural tone. Avoid stilted reading. Time your speech carefully.

Term projects were assigned about this time. Their major aims were to teach the students to work together agreeably, with the underlying hope that they would also work imaginatively and creatively. The class was divided into three groups, the first task of which was to select station names and slogans. They were then to apply to the Federal Communications Commission (*me!*) for a license to broadcast. (I was sneaking up on them. With this directive, they learned painlessly one of the functions of the FCC. And they took rather easily to the idea that Miss O'C. was taking the place of seven people.) There were to be three major projects of approximately fifteen minutes' duration, each of which was to be organized by a "producer," a member elected by the group. Each group was given a date for the broadcasting with the definite understanding that that was its time slot, and that "the show must go on."

(Although truancy was a vital part of my broadcasters' background, I thought that they reformed a bit too strenuously when one arrived for a broadcast with a temperature of 102°.)

Aim 3—learning to work together—was, at first, difficult to accomplish, for the students were not faithful to rehearsals or assignments. The producers of project #1 had a difficult time with their respective groups. It was rather an unusual setup for the teacher, for she was relieved of the responsibility of urging, nagging, and so on. That was the producer's province.

However when WFLA (First, Last and Always, culled from some gas station's advertisement) went "on the air" with all members present (aim 1), with a guest star (creative), and with all working together agreeably (aim 3), aim 2 was accomplished.

Seeing the impressive results of Station WFLA, Stations WHS (Weequahic High School) and WOOC (O'Connor Clan) worked diligently on project #1 so that

WFLA would not receive a higher O'Connor rating than they. (The Battle of the Trendex is not fought with greater enthusiasm.) The highest possible rating was 10, and only one of the groups of the six in the two classes ever received a 6, the lowest I was forced to give. The group that received a 6 in a major project of cycle I won a nine in cycle III.

A consideration of the assignments will give an over-all view of the methods employed in the radio workshop. I have already described project #1. Project #2 called for corrections in timing and technique that might have occurred in the course of project #1. It progressed in that the student became acquainted with various types of commercials and public service announcements. This aspect demanded that he *read* to learn the elements that went into successful advertising. I tried to improve his sense of humor by frowning upon the Mother-Mulligan's-matzos-balls type of humor and praising the more subtle efforts. These first two assignments were purposely simple in requirements, for the student in this type of group becomes easily discouraged.

Project #3, which was the first co-operative venture, was a fifteen-minute slot with the following requirements: (1) A five-minute personality interview. For these, the broadcasters sought faculty members, students with a study period at that time, or friends with leisure. (2) A four-minute school newscast—with special credit given for a scoop. (3) A three-minute straight talk on any topic of the student's choosing. (4) Two one-minute public service spots. (5) A one-minute commercial.

Project #4, book panel. At least three students read the same book and discussed the plot and problems for approximately ten minutes. The class then entered the discussion. Usually one of the panel members gave a brief résumé of the plot, another sketched the characters, while the third proposed controversial questions on

which all three gave their views. Sometimes we duplicated the heat of an author-meets-the-critics session.

I find that this type of program offers many opportunities for guidance. Lost in the discussion of the problems of the hero and heroine, the students disclose their own dilemmas and fears. As an adult, I find it is revealing to listen as their contemporaries offer comforting words and forceful admonitions to the speakers.

To teachers who have long labored on ways and means of luring nonreaders to the printed page, the way the supplementary reading of the term is handled will be jolting. The requirement of the English department is three books a term. The book panel described above met the requirement of the second cycle report, but the first "book" was an assignment that ran through practically the entire term. Each week the students were to read from books and magazines twenty-five pages on radio broadcasting. Mondays were devoted to reports on their reading. The work was planned so that the readings could be channeled toward chapters that would meet their broadcasting needs of the moment. For instance, if a student were to be an interviewer for the next project, his twenty-five pages would be those on the technique of interviewing. I had the delightful experience of having nonreaders asking for permission to read an entire book during the first week because they found the material so interesting. (Had I asked them to read an entire book in one week, can you imagine their reactions! Just to make life interesting, I at first refused permission, claiming that I had topics planned for the future twenty-five-page stints.)

Reading of a third book was motivated by project #6, the production of a one-act play. Since a vehicle suitable for the talents of the specific group had to be chosen, it was necessary for them to read quite a few plays. Analysis and judgment were de-

manded, since theirs was the decision concerning the drama to be presented. I do not wish to give the impression that all the students worked equally diligently on this last reading project. Some read only one play.

Project #5 called for: children's program, four minutes; holiday program, four minutes; transitions or commercials, two minutes.

It was in working with this project that the broadcasters learned the value of unity of impression. The station that tied in the children's program with the holiday gave evidence of planning and working together, whereas the productions of the other stations showed that the individuals had just been told that they were responsible for a certain portion of the program. The difference was so obvious that little teacher comment was needed. Subsequent work improved.

Incidentally, each project was in competition not for an "Emmie" but for a "Connie," although we all agreed that creative enterprises are above measurement.

The tape recordings of each class were played to the other class and served as motivation for the writing of reviews. (And in order to write them, they had to read quite a few. More reading!) They learned the technique of searching for phases to praise to cushion criticism. When one less-than-enthusiastic comment included a misspelled word, the sting of the review was lessened with the broadcaster's disdainful, "This reviewer doesn't even know how to spell 'too.'" When word of this reception reached them, the reviewers were chagrined, and spelling lessons had new impetus. Never were dictionaries so paged. When publicity releases artistically executed were rejected because of misspelled words, the seriousness of a spelling deficiency was further emphasized. Station members refused to have their releases marred by a crossed-out letter. One error meant that the entire piece of work had to

be redone. As can be seen, teacher censure was rarely necessary. One abided by the judgment of his peers.

Another traditional English-curriculum unit—that of letter writing—had many purposeful features. We wrote for tickets to broadcasts, to radio magazines, to per-

formers themselves. Answers to our letters were highlights of the term.

Considering all the factors that served as motivation for reading, writing, speaking, and listening, do you wonder that I broadcast the satisfaction derived from teaching a radio workshop?

## Eureka! A Different Kind of Summer School

By CHARLES A. ROBISON  
Mount Pleasant, Texas

Public education in the United States is a perplexing, frustrating, fascinating, yet withal a tantalizing endeavor, because we almost succeed. Our schools employ many teachers who would like nothing better than an opportunity to teach their hearts out. We are well supplied with boys and girls who are ready, willing, and able to learn. Then there are the patrons of our schools, who are eager to provide all of the necessary buildings and facilities to insure the most favorable teaching-learning situation. The heartbreak is, simply, that these three parties have never acted in unison.

What has prevented the harmonious action of these most interested parties? The most direct answer is that it has not been attempted. Each has made his contribution as an individual, unaware of the feasibility of joining hands. In our schools the means are at war with the ends; and since time always favors the means, the means win and our educational ends are defeated. The only answer has been: "Well, this has been a day."

Here is a solution: In the summer, two weeks after the close of the regular term, the state should support a tuition-free, voluntary summer school at the junior high-senior high level for a period of six weeks. No one would be required to attend nor

would he suffer any penalty for nonattendance. The school would be for those who wanted to learn and those who wanted to teach. Some of the advantages of a such a school would be:

- (1) It would form a bond between the alert student, his teacher, and his parent, sought but never attained by the P.T.A.
- (2) Innovations, experiments, and advanced courses could be tried at a minimum of expense.
- (3) The strengths of the summer school would expose the weaknesses of the long term.
- (4) Uncontested by nonacademic activities, learning could flourish.
- (5) Students entering the professions could save at least a year's time.
- (6) It would make use of the buildings and facilities that usually remain unused for the summer.
- (7) It would eliminate force as an inducement to learning.
- (8) It would locate the future leaders at an early age.
- (9) It would permit the superior teacher to demonstrate the difference between effective and ineffective teaching.
- (10) It would awaken the citizenship to the necessity for assuring a college education for all worthy students who needed financial assistance.

# Are Special Classes for Slow Learners Worth While?

By  
ANN REID

THE OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICT is observing its semicentennial this year. In evaluating growth in the educational areas, it is giving particular attention to progress in special education. A follow-up study has recently been completed showing the effects of training in a special class. This involves students generally indicated by the term slow learner—for this study, those with I.Q.'s under 80.

In order to assay the effects of a special education program on the adjustment of the slow learner, a follow-up study was made of two groups of children, equated in pairs as to I.Q., age, social-economic status, grade in school, sex, and reading level. The members of one group had been in a special class for slow learners for two years, during the fifth and sixth grades, and the members of the other group were selected from Oklahoma City schools that had no special classes for slow learners. The independent variable was the two years, at least, spent in a special class in elementary school.

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*To group or not to group, that is the question. Whether 'tis better to suffer heterogeneous grouping or to press for homogeneous grouping, in non-Shakespearean paraphrase, is an issue that generates controversy. Here, however, is some evidence in favor of special grouping for slow learners. It cannot be controversial because it is a controlled experiment and, therefore, has no preconceived notions. The author is a member of the educational staff of the public schools in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.*

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### *Purpose of the Follow-up Study*

The purpose of this study was to determine the benefits, if any, in terms of better adjustment for the slow learner by means of a special class program. The following hypotheses were tested in relation to a five-year period following sixth-grade status of the members of the group:

1. That members of the special class group will spend more years in school beyond sixth grade than will slow learners of the regular class group.
2. That members of the special class group will have fewer members delinquent than will slow learners of the regular class group.
3. That members of the special class will have more incidents of responsible and outstanding participation in school activities than will slow learners of the regular class group.

### *The Subjects*

The forty-four subjects included in this study ranged in age from eleven to thirteen years, and were in grade five when the study began. All had been identified as below normal in intelligence, with an I.Q. range from 67 to 79, as reported on their school records. The test scores were reported by school testers using the California Test of Mental Maturity, the Stanford-Binet, or the Wechsler-Bellevue scales. These children, on the basis of type of work of the parents, residential area in which they lived, and judgments of school principals and teachers, were from the low social-economic group.

Group I, the special class group, consisted of twelve boys and ten girls enrolled in special education classes in an elementary

school (Shideler) in Oklahoma City in the fifth and sixth grades in 1950-1951 and 1951-1952. This group is referred to in the study as the special education group.

Group II, the control group, consisted of twelve boys and ten girls, paired and equated with the children in the special education group in: chronological age, sex, I.Q., grade in school, race, reading level, and social-economic status. These children were selected from three other Oklahoma City elementary schools (Lee, Heronville, and Stand Waite) that did not, in 1950 or 1951, have special classes for slow learners. Selections were made from these three schools rather than from Shideler to avoid any possible bias that might result from taking students for pairing where a certain type of selection (that is, those referred and those not referred to a special class) might have operated. These three schools are in neighborhoods adjoining Shideler. Group II will be referred to in this study as the control group.

The two groups consisted of equated pairs. The independent variable was that the members of the special education group had at least two years in a special class for slow learners. None of the members of the control group had any training in a special class as such.

#### *Procedure*

Each of the forty-four children selected for this study was traced through the five- or six-year interim from the school year

ending in 1951 or 1952 to the present. School records, police and court records, information gathered from teachers, principals, neighbors, employers, and parents form the data from which the results of this study were determined.

#### *Results*

Examination of Table 1 (see below) shows the present status of the forty-four children of this study. For purposes of the follow-up, data relating to the twenty remaining subjects in the special class group and the nineteen remaining in the control group are reported.

*Hypothesis 1.* Of the special class group, seventeen out of twenty children, or 85 per cent, are still enrolled in school. Of the control group, eight out of nineteen children, or 42 per cent, are still in school. The first hypothesis—that the children of the special class group would spend more years in school beyond the sixth grade than slow learners from a regular class—was sustained.

*Hypothesis 2.* In respect to the second hypothesis concerning incidence of delinquency in the special class and control groups, delinquency for the purposes of this study is defined as actual violation of the law, involving the recording of a child's name and offense on police or court records.

Table 2 (next page) gives data on incidence of delinquency in both groups. Two of the twenty special class group, or 10 per cent, were involved in delinquent behavior

TABLE 1  
STATUS OF THE CHILDREN IN SPECIAL CLASS AND CONTROL GROUPS IN 1957

Whereabouts or status	Special Class Group	Control Group	Total	% Special Group	% Control Group
Enrolled in school	17	8	25	85	42
Full-time work	1	5	6	5	26
Married	1	2	3	5	10.6
Armed Forces	0	2	2	0	10.6
Juvenile Detention	1	2	3	5	10.6
Children remaining in follow-up study	20	19	39		
Moved away or not accounted for	2	3	5		
Totals	22	22	44	100	100

TABLE 2  
INCIDENCE OF DELINQUENCY AS DEFINED IN SPECIAL  
CLASS AND CONTROL GROUPS

<i>Delinquency</i>	<i>Special Class Group N=20</i>	<i>Control Group N=19</i>	<i>Total</i>
Number of students involved	2	7	9
Incidents of violation	2	33	35
Number of types of violation*	4	12	16

\* When a child is booked for violations, often the charge lists more than one misdemeanor or offense on a single charge.

as defined. Seven of the nineteen children in the control group, or 37 per cent, were involved. In number of violations, the data reveal two violations for special class children and thirty-three for members of the control group, or over sixteen times as many. The hypothesis that members of the special class group would have fewer incidents of delinquency than would slow learners from a regular class was sustained.

*Hypothesis 3.* For the third hypothesis, relating to participation in school activities, only those children in both groups who are still in school are included.

The classifications of activities that appear on Table 3 (see above) are: teacher's aides, office aides, counselor's aides; outstanding participation in music, athletics, or art; outstanding participation in vocational or agricultural club work. The first three classifications, those of aides, require participation by dependable and pleasant students. In the rest of the classifications, because so often children enroll in clubs and drop out or do not attend or contribute, only those children were included in the tabulation who had either held positions of leadership or had won honors or awards.

According to Table 3, of the special class group, eight students had participated in ten activities, out of seventeen children still in school, or 47 per cent. Of the control group, three children out of eight still in

TABLE 3  
SCHOOL ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION OF MEMBERS OF  
SPECIAL CLASS AND CONTROL GROUPS

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Number of participants in special class group N=17</i>	<i>Number of participants in control group N=8</i>
Teacher's aides	2	0
Office aides	1	0
Counselor's aides	1	0
Music	2	1
Athletics	1	1
Art	1	0
Vocational work	1	0
Agricultural club work	1	1
Total	10*	3†

\* This total represents 10 incidents of outstanding participation by 8 students.

† This total represents 3 incidents of outstanding participation by 3 students.

school had participated in three activities, or 38 per cent.

The percentage differences here are not large; but it must be kept in mind that out of twenty of the special class group, seventeen are still in school, while of the control group only eight are still in school. It is reasonable to suppose that those children dropping out of school would be less likely to have capacities for achieving status in a school than those remaining. On the basis of the original numbers in the two groups, eight out of twenty children, or 40 per cent of the special class group, and three out of nineteen, or 16 per cent of the control group, had participated in a responsible and outstanding manner in school activities. On this basis, the third hypothesis—that members of the special class will have more incidents of responsible and outstanding participation in school activities than slow learners from a regular class—is sustained.

#### Conclusions

The results from this follow-up study seem to indicate that the special class group had made a better adjustment than the control group, the members of which had been in regular classes during fifth and sixth grades.

Seventeen of the twenty children in the special class group were still in school at the end of the five-year period, whereas only eight of the nineteen in the control group were enrolled. Both groups had originally been equated as to reading level, so that conditions for high-school survival on the basis of the reading factor would be the same for both groups. Since both groups were equated for I.Q., socioeconomic status, reading level, age, and sex, it would appear that the special class training had been a factor in increased school tenure for the special class group.

The lower incidence of delinquency as defined was less than  $\frac{1}{3}$  as great for the special class group and seems to indicate better adjustment for this group. The fact that the incidence of participation in responsible and status-gaining school activities was higher for the special class group seems to indicate better adjustment in the continuing school experience.

On all three factors investigated—longer school tenure, less incidence of delinquency, more participation in school activities—the special class group showed definite signs of better adjustment.

## Adolescent Inequalities

Some of the major problems in many of our secondary schools are the distinct differences between the adolescent boy and the adolescent girl in scholastic achievement, degree of acceptance of positive citizenship factors, and social maturity. Most educators are confronted with problems of non-conforming behavior patterns, unbalanced proportions of the sexes on the school's honor rolls, and social or emotional problems requiring a larger amount of formal guidance teaching.

In reality, the schools are contributing to these secondary-school age problems by starting boys and girls at the same age in the primary grades. And yet, we recognize the fact that they reach puberty at different stages of their adolescent school years. The differences place the majority of the boys in unfavorable positions as they reach their teens, almost forcing them to misbehave, become complacent, be discourteous, etc. in order to compensate for their immaturity....

Frequently, the freshman or sophomore boy begins to feel socially inadequate for his female classmates and decides that the only way to enjoy mixed social affairs is to associate with the eighth-grade girls from the nearby junior high school. It is at this state of mind when he becomes the one who lingers or loiters outside the junior high-school building slowly to bolster his ego. He might venture into the building supposedly to greet his former teachers, or he might possibly station himself outside the school property limits artfully smoking and displaying the latest high-school clothing fad. Eventually, he comes merely to escort or greet

the eighth-grade girl who has been impressed with this display of common maturity. These little dramas do much to keep the unbalanced maturities in the limelight and to create administrative school problems.

If boys were normally one year older than the girls in any given grade, the secondary-school environment would be altered considerably. The balancing of teenage entrance to physical maturity by altering the initial equal age requirement would tend to relieve many of the emotional and social problems for them. It could conceivably diminish an environment that breeds the "show off," the dreamer, the defiant little fellow, and the countless other surface behaviors that can be definitely traced to the physical inconsistencies of the sexes.

The present general stereotyped policy of equal age requirement, except for children with proven maturity, puts the normal male student in an unfavorable competitive position in carrying out his role. The resulting façade problems necessitate increasing vigilance and treatment by all educational personnel with special emphasis being placed on the guidance staff. By creating a school society that does not directly provide for the recognized physical differences which act as springboards to social and emotional trouble pools, we are perpetuating adolescent problems that are often accepted as unavoidable. As educators, we owe it to our entrusted youth to investigate properly all areas that lead to human distress and then act accordingly.—E. A. SCROFANI in the *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

# *In Student Council Fund-Raising Activities*

## **Money Is Not the Only Objective**

By GEORGE W. FITCHET

STUDENT COUNCILS in large and small schools throughout the land have fund-raising activities which may take many forms, depending upon the rules of the school and the work the councils undertake. Edgewood High School is no exception; we have four major projects that require a substantial amount of money for completion. These projects are: (1) to sponsor all school dances, (2) to supply meat for seven needy families at Christmas, (3) to maintain the student recreational room, (4) to sponsor all assemblies. For the past several years one of the means of raising funds has been the operation of a refreshment stand at the home football games.

In previous years our students had operated a stand at the field which the school rented. Last year lights were erected at our own field and this made it necessary for the council to construct a refreshment stand of our own.

The planning and building of the structure became a major project, involving

many students and several faculty members before it was completed. The principal, assistant student council adviser, industrial arts teacher, and several students who had worked in the old booth spent many hours planning the new building. The students did the planning under the guidance of the faculty members, thus developing a sense of pride and accomplishment on their part. When the plans were complete, the council bought the necessary materials and the shop classes did the actual construction work under the guidance of the industrial arts teacher. Every student who worked saw some of the principles he had learned in class put into operation. As soon as the work was completed the assistant adviser and several of the faculty men helped the students paint the structure.

The council then chose a chairman to operate the concession for this year. Several students were nominated and the members of council discussed each one's qualifications in light of the requirements for the position. They felt that the student should be a leader, be resourceful and trustworthy, and have some business ability. This person would then do the buying, take care of the bookkeeping, and direct the operations on the night of the game.

The setting up, operating, and cleaning up are all done by student volunteers. The only reward that these students receive is their admission to the game at which they work. Here is one of the objectives that goes beyond just earning money. The students are learning to contribute to their community (the school) without expecting some monetary reward. This characteristic should be developed more in our schools,

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*The implication in the title is that raising money is one of the objectives in school activities. We hope you will be interested in finding out how the author clarifies his views on the projects that attempt to raise funds and at the same time involve hard work by students. It is a story about a refreshment stand on the athletic field. What kind of stand, who built it, and how it operates, are described clearly. The author is teacher of biology and physics in Edgewood High School, Ashtabula County, Ohio, and also assistant student council adviser there.*

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for the accusation has been leveled at the American people that they are too materialistic.

The chairman assigns each student his working hours and job. If the concession is to work smoothly, the students must develop a sense of punctuality and responsibility. The first game usually brings out some problems that require changes in the responsibilities assigned to some students, but by the second game everything functions smoothly.

The workers must also develop the attributes of salesmanship and diplomacy. The better salesmen they are, the more they are able to sell. Whenever the public is dealt with, there is a certain amount of diplomacy necessary to avoid small disputes. The workers are instructed to cause no hard feelings, but to be courteous and helpful to all customers no matter how hard this may be at times. If the students develop this attitude, they will carry it with them when they leave school.

When the crowd congregates at the stand during the half-time intermission, co-operation and teamwork are essential to the smooth operation of the concession. Here again there are usually mistakes made the first night, but the students soon work out procedures that enable them to handle more customers in a shorter time. Many of these ideas are not new to the adviser, but he allows the students to discover the techniques themselves. By doing this, the workers get a sense of accomplishment and constantly seek further methods of improvement.

The knowledge and experience gained by the chairman will naturally be greater than those gained by the nightly worker. During football season the chairman must work all week to be ready on the night of the game. What are some of the learning situa-

tions that he or she is thrown into? First of all, the chairman must set up a schedule for the workers and decide where each person would function best. Secondly, a knowledge of food buying must be developed if profit is to be made. Food is not the only thing that must be bought. There are paper cups, wooden spoons, napkins, and many other items to be accounted for. He must make the arrangements for the delivery of the merchandise at a time when he is available. Finally, he must see that all is in readiness when the workers arrive the night of the game. After the game is over several of the students begin the job of cleaning up the stand and the grounds around it. They are proud of the building and the grounds and like to keep it in good condition. While this is being done by the workers, the chairman is taking an inventory so that he can determine how much to order for the next game.

Lastly, the chairman must count the money and balance it against the merchandise sold. When this task is done, a complete report must be written up and submitted to the council on the following Tuesday. Here is where accuracy again enters the picture. A workable accounting system must be devised, and at the end of the season a final report and financial statement must be presented to council for approval.

At no time do we overlook the fact that the object of the project is to raise funds, but we stress other objectives too. I believe that we should try to develop the following: (1) leadership, (2) honesty, (3) planning ability, (4) pride in work, (5) co-operation, (6) teamwork, (7) merchandising ability, (8) accounting practices. There are probably many others. In short, when students run a concession stand, making money is only one of many objectives.

## Book Reviews

FORREST IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

*Administration of Guidance Services*  
by RAYMOND N. HATCH and BUFORD  
STEFFLRE. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. 499 pages, \$6.50.

As guidance programs have expanded in the past two decades, the school administrator and/or guidance director have had difficulty in locating a source book that includes basic administrative concepts and a defensible position for guidance services embraced within the broader concept of the educational process. Guidance literature has needed a text that outlines in detail both principles and methodology for realizing the goals of an effectively organized guidance program.

The authors state in the preface: "The administrator of guidance services must have, in addition to a knowledge of tools and techniques of guidance, a general understanding of administrative concepts. This book is meant to stimulate him to the development of a better understanding of administrative practice, which should result in an increase in his competence as a guidance specialist." In support of this position, the authors introduce the reader in the beginning chapters to the broad education scene, to a guidance point of view, to basic administrative constructs, and to the relationship of guidance to pupil personnel services. Chapter 4 leads the reader into a discussion of organizational patterns and personnel with focus on the belief that "the day is long past when an 'incidental' organization made up of 'educational generalists' could be depended upon for the preparation of all young people for a life in a rapidly changing world. Today's education requires a streamlined organization for maximum service with a minimum of duplication, and it also requires the utilization of an effective staff in roles of the greatest competence for each." Hatch and Stefflre view effective guidance services in terms of participation on the part of all school staff members with some of the staff having primary responsibilities in guidance services and secondary responsibilities in administration and instruction; still others having their primary responsibility in either administration or instruction with secondary responsibilities in the other major services contributing to the over-all educational program.

The counselor trainer or student in guidance work will welcome the realistic suggestions for positive administration of guidance services as outlined in Chapter 5. Each of the five major guidance services is considered in describing major materials

and functions to be included and a specification of the necessary competencies desirable if the guidance worker is to perform at an optimum level. The construct of a guidance team permeates the entire manuscript. In Chapter 5 some of the controversial issues, such as the counselor's role in discipline, the counselor and registration, and privileged communication, are placed in a meaningful perspective.

The chapters on "Budget and Facilities" and "Evaluation of Guidance Services" will furnish those responsible for administering the guidance program with some valuable starting points in providing for guidance services and for taking a look at the services once they are under way. The chapter on evaluation is probably the weakest chapter of the book; however, this aspect of guidance work in many respects is in its infancy. The last chapter in Part I, "Improving the Guidance Services," focuses attention on the pitfalls that the guidance administrator may face in implementing an organized guidance program. Emphasis is placed on the psychological climate and on initiating procedures which are useful in continually upgrading guidance services.

This book provides a Part II which is unique to texts in administration of guidance services. The teacher of a college course in this area of counselor preparation will find the three school case studies a helpful means for structuring role-playing situations in the classroom: The Hamilton school district is representative of a town with a population of 5,000; the Fremont school district encompasses forty square miles and the town has a population of 850; and the Plymouth school district is located in a city of approximately 20,000. Hatch and Stefflre state: "The study of these cases is designed to encourage a consideration of complex organizational and administrative problems in a way that is cautious, systematic, and yet creative, with due and proper regard for the nuances of attitude, sentiment, and subjectivity that often outweigh the textbook logic of a specific situation."

The authors have forthrightly stated their views. The fundamental principles of administration, the guidance point of view, the responsibilities of personnel, and budget and facilities are given adequate coverage. These issues are supported by example, and an effective procedural approach for relating theory and practice in the classroom is provided.

GAIL F. FARWELL

*Complete Book of Campfire Programs* by LARUE A. THURSTON. New York: Association Press, 1958. 318 pages, \$5.95.

The campfire can be one of the most meaningful and memorable occasions in the experience of the camper, and good camp leaders must be able to insure the emergence of these worth-while results. This book by LaRue A. Thurston, who is a field director with the Boy Scouts of America, offers valuable help to leaders in all types of camps.

There are many suggestions concerning the construction of the campfire circle and of the building of the fire itself. New and interesting ways of lighting the fire are described. Leadership and program planning are thoroughly discussed and many suggestions are given for use in various kinds of camps. There are many interesting and tested ideas for ceremonies and courts. Chapters on songs, games, storytelling, stunts, magic, and noisy fun to be used around the campfire give a wealth of practical material. The chapter of sample programs shows how interesting and widely varied the campfire can be.

Leaders in every kind of camp, teachers, and campers themselves will find this book both useful and inspirational.

HARRIET G. MCCORMICK

*The New Applied Mathematics* (5th ed.) by SIDNEY J. LASLEY and MYRTLE F. MUDD. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. 457 pages, \$3.48.

The text is written by junior-high-school teachers who know the subject matter for a course in general mathematics and who know both the philosophy of the junior high school and the psychology of the junior-high-school student. It is well organized to suit the needs of students of all levels of ability, with opportunities and problems provided for remedial work. There are many tests spaced throughout the text and an abundance of practice exercises both throughout and at the end of the book.

The book is packed full of exercises and problems, with the latter requiring varied processes. They are selected for their appeal to ninth graders with an emphasis on shop mathematics and real life situations in many areas, though problems of special interest to girls seem to be lacking. The student ought to find the work interesting and challenging. The enrichment materials in the form of play-offs, puzzles, and so on, are excellent and the glossary of terms and the list of definitions are valuable additions to the text.

The text emphasizes the drill approach, and devotes little attention to the development of concepts and understandings; the authors are inter-

ested in developing the ability to compute and have laid down rules and steps to guide the learner. To the achievement of this end—learning to solve exercises and problems—the authors and the users should be successful.

The text should be an excellent one from which to teach.

MARVIN C. VOLPEL

*Teen-Age Plays for All Occasions* by MILDRED HARK and NOEL MCQUEEN. 465 pages, \$5.00. *Holiday Plays for Little Players* by DEBORAH NEWMAN. 286 pages, \$4.00. Boston: Plays, Inc., 1957.

In these two books the authors provide a number of royalty-free one-act plays to be performed on a specific holiday, during a particular week, or for some season recognition. Occasions common to both books of plays are the following (listed as they occur in the school year): Halloween, Election Day, Book Week, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's Birthday, Valentine's Day, Washington's Birthday, Mother's Day, Memorial Day, Class Day, Graduation. From one to five plays are offered for these various occasions, the volumes averaging about two plays for each event. The teen-age collection also includes several plays classified "for all occasions." The anthology for the elementary school children also has a number of additional groups: Columbus Day, Fire Prevention Week, Veterans Day, New Year's Day, St. Patrick's Day, April Fools' Day, Easter, Arbor Day, and Flag Day.

Plays, Inc., the publisher of these collections of dramas for performance, has a long record of bringing out plays suitable for classroom and school auditorium. These two volumes are in the tradition of the selections in the company's monthly periodical, *Plays*. What this means is that the plays have a real story, a plot; that the dialogue is reasonably natural for the children; that the plays, in some instances, require period costumes, on most occasions modern dress; that the meaning, which is often quite moral, won't bleed through too offensively. Instruction and inspiration may occasionally come close to outweighing entertainment; still the plays primarily seek to please (although here I am inclined to believe that most of the teen-age plays would fare better in the junior high school).

Both sets of plays include "production notes": character needs, costume, setting, lighting, playing times. Performance times average twenty-five to thirty-five minutes.

*Mother's V.I.P.'s*, for instance, a teen-age play for Mother's Day, tells the story of a family that has a number of stars: father as a successful businessman, a son who has already made a name be-

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cause of his study of science, a daughter successful in leading a nationally recognized welfare drive, and still another son pitching something like little leaguers to victory. A substantial part of the play emphasizes their success, their feelings of importance, the retiring part that Mother has played, and their tendency to relegate Mother to the background. But in the end, newspaper reporter and photographer, who were thought to come to the home to interview some one of the big four, are actually interested in Mother as the guiding hand. The story is not unduly obvious.

For the younger players and audience, the plays are reasonably appropriate. For Book Week, Deborah Newman chooses to adapt from fairy tales, including a version of *The Emperor's New Clothes*. Because in 1950 my college produced this play in full length, I was particularly interested in the reduction of the Hans Christian Andersen tale in the anthology. The reduction to one act is adequate, although I doubt that it can be performed in "ten minutes," according to production notes. The marriage of the two knaves to the emperor's daughters is a new touch that is not disturbing.

Both volumes of plays seem good additions to classroom and school libraries for reading. The plays are worth performing.

PAUL COOKE

*Roman Life* by MARY JOHNSTON. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1957. 478 pages, \$5.50.

Two features of the successor to *Private Life of the Romans* are particularly impressive: the appealing presentation of the details of Roman living and the scholarly organization of the materials.

The book is based on archaeological evidence, and wherever possible the author has illustrated the topic by numerous sketches or photographs. The result is a vivid, graphic presentation that produces a forceful impact upon the reader. The attractive format contributes greatly to the appeal of the book: the print is large and easy to read; the quality of the paper is excellent, and the material is not crowded on the page. *Roman Life* is a literary achievement.

The scholarly organization of the materials makes this book a teacher's delight, as well as a valuable reference work, for the details of *Roman Life* are arranged in small, easily assimilated units (cf. p. 224ff., "Meals of the Day: Simple fare. Luxurious living. Hours for meals. Breakfast. Luncheon . . ."). The biographical section, divided into general works and books for additional reading, together with a specific chapter-by-chapter bibliography, provides extensive references for those with special interests. A short section, "Periods of

History," gives the reader a brief chronology of Roman historical events from 753 B.C. to 565 A.D. The "Glossary of Latin Words and Abbreviations" is thorough and complete. The "Descriptive List of Illustrations" identifies each illustration and its origin, even to completing and translating into English the Latin inscriptions cited (cf. pp. 214, 145). The index lists numerous cross references.

Mary Johnston, the author, and Eleanore H. Cooper, directing editor of the Scott-Foresman Latin program, are to be commended for producing such a scholarly book, appealing to all those interested in Roman life and its history.

WALLACE H. MAGOON

*Psychology: Its Principles and Applications* (3d ed.) by T. L. ENGLE. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1957. 657 pages, \$4.24.

Informative and provocative aptly describe the two principal characteristics of this high-school psychology text. The careful use of "living" examples should motivate the high-school student to read this book and help him extend his thinking on many of the psychological topics. The book is organized into seven major units: the science of psychology, learning, patterns of human behavior, why we have varied patterns of behavior, mental health, love and marriage, and you and society.

Introducing the reader to the meaning of psychology as contrasted with the pseudo sciences is the base for the six remaining units. To this reviewer, it might have been more consistent to discuss intelligence (part of unit 3) with learning in unit 2. Other topics in unit 3 focus on personality. Unit 4 surveys the intriguing area of biological foundations of behavior. Outstanding is unit 5, mental health. Engle has discerningly selected problems and issues of interest to teen-agers. With the material in this unit, the expert teacher has an opportunity to use it for group guidance purposes. In units six and seven, consideration is given to the topics of love, marriage, the world of work, and problems of society.

This revised edition continues the author's excellent work. It is well written and easy to read without sacrificing correct terminology which so often gives the proper nuance of meaning to topics which are intangible in nature. The careful use of statistical reports and research data document key ideas and concepts at the proper time. The use of vocabulary lists and recommended readings extends the horizons of learning for the high-school student. After reading the text, this reviewer is prompted to ask, "Why don't more high schools teach courses in psychology?"

HERMAN J. PETERS

*An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education* by VERNON MALLINSON. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957. 249 pages, \$3.50.

This 250-page book is written by a lecturer in comparative education at England's University of Reading. While diagrammatic representations of education in seven western European countries are given, the book is organized around such topics as the purpose of education, its administration, teacher training, primary and secondary education, and technical and vocational education. Education in the United States and Russia is also considered, but unfortunately the interpretations are based not on personal observation of current practice as is the case with the other countries.

The author spends almost half of the book providing a picture of the contemporary scene in matters of educational policy and practice and explaining how and why educational problems common to the countries studied are being tackled in different ways and with what results. His main thesis is that education is both the expression of a nation's traditions and aspirations and the place of beginning of its future. After suggesting the marked characteristics of such countries as Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland, Mallinson indicates that a nation's schools can be understood only when one appreciates the existence of a number of relatively permanent attitudes or values common to a nation. He believes that any attempt to use education as an immediate remedy is bound to fail but that slow changes can be brought about if these are in the terms of the national character.

To give one specific example of how the author connects education and its culture, he shows how vocational and technical education grew and developed as a result of industrialization or the lack of it in a country. Holland, with its dependence on intensive farming, commerce, and carrying trade, developed technical education rather slowly. The Scandinavian countries were mainly agrarian, and for geographical and other reasons were less influenced by the Industrial Revolution. As a result, their folk high schools were never intended to give instruction in vocational studies, although they now do this.

The Soviet Union has evolved from an agrarian to an industrial economy and this has had far-reaching repercussions on the educational system. All sense of social distinction between the manual and intellectual worker has been abolished. Technical education has been used to equip the student—youth or adult—with the knowledge of a technical nature required to make him work more efficiently and at a higher level in a highly in-

dustrialized setting. Analyses of this phase of an educational program in the United States and other countries were also given, but space does not permit inclusion of them here. With regard to this aspect of comparative education, Mallinson concludes that vocational education is rapidly growing, is being liberally financed, and is eagerly sought. Its problems are: (1) How much general education should trainees have and of what kind? (2) How early shall specialization begin? (3) How can the right kind of person be encouraged to take up technical work and how can it be made "respectable" to those who have traditionally sought an academic type of education? (4) How can technical education adjust to the changing needs of the world of work?

The preceding two paragraphs indicate the author's method of relating technical primary and secondary education, teacher training, and educational administration to the thesis of the first half of the book. This approach does in fact put education itself into the conspectus of the society of which it is a part. But some losses inevitably occur: In a short volume, descriptions of education in various countries must be compressed and some details omitted entirely. The author assumes a knowledge of modern British education, which is undoubtedly justified for English educators but hardly for Americans. Nevertheless, this is a book well worth reading because it treats of the school and its society as essential to one another.

FRANCIS CHASE ROSECRANCE

*Book of Indian Life Crafts* by OSCAR E. NORBECK. New York: Association Press, 1958. 253 pages, \$5.95.

This book contains a wealth of authentic information on the various crafts of the American Indian, gathered by the author through years of experience living with the Indians and learning about their skills and lore at firsthand.

This is a "how to do it" book which tells the reader explicitly how to make Indian costumes, ornaments, and accessories. It describes their arts and decorations, including the meanings of their symbols and motifs, and how to make their dyes and paints. It describes how to make Indian drums, rattles, and other musical instruments. Such interesting activities as fire building, communicating by smoke signals, growing and preparing Indian foods are described. The making of pottery, implements and utensils, and hunting equipment is discussed. There are descriptions of the types of dwellings used by different Indian tribes. There is a good description of some Indian games and how to make the equipment used for them. And last there is a useful appendix which includes a bibliography,

sources of supply for authentic Indian products, a calendar of Indian events in the United States, and a list of Indian names and their meanings.

The descriptions are clear and explicit. The projects have all been tested on groups of young people in the six- to nine-year-old bracket and their fathers who are members together of the Father and Son Y-Indian Guides tribes.

HARRIET G. MCCORMICK

*Making Better Readers* by RUTH STRANG and DOROTHY KENDALL BRACKEN. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1957. 367 pages, \$4.75.

This is a most readable book of interest to any secondary-school teacher. It is especially valuable as a text for use with college students who are planning to teach in either junior or senior high.

The first chapter provides an overview of the teaching of reading in the elementary school. This is followed by a discussion of the reasons for the great range of reading ability in the secondary school. The various reading skills necessary to the high-school student are carefully enumerated and described. An emphasis is laid on the responsibility of the entire faculty toward the teaching of reading. Sections of chapter 5 are devoted to suggestions for the teaching of reading in each of the various subject areas of the secondary school. The final chapter discusses special reading groups and reading clinics. Valuable information is included in the appendix in the annotated lists of tests, audio-visual materials, texts, books for reluctant readers, and mechanical devices.

LOIS M. OTTERMAN

## Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

*Dr. Cooke* is professor of English at the District of Columbia Teachers College, Washington, D.C.

*Dr. Farwell* is associate professor of education at the Ohio State University, Columbus.

*Dr. Magoon* is professor of Latin and chairman of the foreign language department at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.

*Dr. McCormick* is director of physical education and recreation for women, Fairleigh Dickinson University.

*Dr. Otterman* is director of reading center and associate professor, New Haven State Teachers College.

*Dr. Peters* is associate professor of education at the Ohio State University, Columbus.

*Dr. Rosecrance* is dean of the College of Education, Wayne State University, Detroit.

*Dr. Volpel* is chairman of the department of mathematics, State Teachers College, Towson, Md.

# The Humanities Today

Associate Editor: HENRY B. MALONEY

## TV & NEWER MEDIA

### Program of the Year

Choosing a TV program of the year is perhaps as pretentious as selecting an all-American high-school football team. Even if the reviewer is thick skinned enough to look at a number of supposedly lower grade programs in the hope of finding a "sleeper," he is destined to miss some worth-while efforts. An extrinsic difficulty in the quest is that the networks still put outstanding programs back to back at the same hour, forcing the viewer to choose one or the other. An intrinsic problem is that his humors may be out of sorts at a given hour on a given day. Maybe one Sunday afternoon, shortly before "Omnibus" is to appear, his cocktail shaker runs dry, somewhat desiccating his appraisal of the program. Possibly his wife regularly serves fried cabbage on Thursday nights, causing our man's black bile to be in the ascendancy and putting a chronic blot on the Thursday night score card. The idea of singling out one program is patently absurd, but this writer approaches it anyway, feeling that some values will be brought to light.

The season currently closing was a great one for common denominators. Westerns imitated each other, and singer personalities imitated each other until they became as lifeless and inbred as the royal families that married their own cousins.

"The Last Word" evidently sought to hook a sponsor by inviting commercially attractive guests, and such eminent practitioners of modern American usage as Groucho Marx, Garry Moore, and Dorothy Kilgallen found their way onto the panel. Personalities like these, and Bergen Evans' exceedingly liberal attitude toward most defections from the linguistic norm helped make the program more common, less educational. It may yet get a sponsor.

Mike Wallace from time to time defends the ideals of mother, church, home, and country so vigorously and monotonously that their value seems to diminish, and they take on a common, hackneyed look. Mr. Wallace was waving his fiery sword in the face of former *Daily Worker* editor John Gates long after Mr. Gates had been reduced to ashes.

In commercials as well, neighborly Dennis James and Dick Stark continue to lure TV viewers into stores with a soft sell that dupes the consumer into believing that the friendly advice he is getting comes from the man next door instead of from a highly skilled, highly paid pitchman.

Over these programs hangs a synthetic "niceness" with which the Common Man likes to identify. In the westerns and Mr. Wallace's interviews it is manifested by the inevitable triumph of good over evil. In "The Last Word" it is reflected in Dr. Evans' failure to be dogmatic when a dogmatic answer seems to be called for.

In this context of commercial sincerity I found the wonderfully candid interview that Edward R. Murrow conducted with ex-President Truman on "See It Now" almost startling. For me, this program did more than any other to reveal the shallowness of TV in general, and because it proved the following points, all of which are pertinent to educators, it strikes me as being the program of the year.

(1) Commonness and triteness can never replace candor and sincerity as sources of interest in television dialogue.

(2) Real people are more interesting than the one-faceted mnemonic freaks who haunt the quiz shows.

(3) Art is, after all, an imitation of life, and the great drama of our time lies in living history, in life itself.

(4) The eye of TV, when properly focused, will, of its very nature, do a more objective reporting job than the weekly news magazines.

Not only did the Truman interview set a lofty target for other programs to aim at, but the appearance of the chipper ex-President probably did more for the morale of septuagenarians than a whole truckload of Geritol would.

H.B.M.

### Special Notice

The Newport Jazz Festival will make an award this year to the TV show making the best presentation of jazz to a general audience in the preceding year. Any program (local or network) broadcast between June 1, 1957, and June 1, 1958, is eligible. A group of distin-

guished critics will make the award at Newport, Rhode Island, in July.

You can help the process of screening by bringing local jazz programs to the attention of Patrick D. Hazard, Critics Symposium Committee, Newport Jazz Festival, c/o Department of American Civilization, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia 4, Pennsylvania.

## PRINTED PERSPECTIVES

### *Leisure for What?*

*Time for Living* by GEORGE SOULE. New York: Viking Press, 1955. 184 pages, \$3.00.

*Recreation in the Age of Automation* edited by PAUL F. DOUGLASS. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCCXIII (September, 1957). 208 pages, \$2.00 (paper).

For the grimdest of ironies, tune to A.B.C.-TV in the late weekday afternoons for a program originating from Philadelphia, called "American Bandstand." There you will see teenagers rockin' and rollin' away their leisure, with the most cruelly vacant expressions imaginable. Their faces say: "Man! This is living it up. We never had it so good." But their faces also betray a sense of how futile it is to kid themselves that way—they're patently bored, jaded, and still in high school! This is a grim irony because these children are the sons and daughters of working-class people—you can tell from the names, the clothes, the accents. And their liberation from drudgery is one of the minor miracles of industrialism. They are part of the new mass leisure class that is all dressed up yet knows no place satisfying to go. To see them, still lost but a little older, pick up *Life* (January 20, 1958) for the photo essay comparing tourists in Palm Beach and Miami Beach. For centuries we have striven to remove the deadening yoke of servile toil from off the backs of most men. And now that most of us in America can look up at the stars, we have managed to find a million varieties of yo-yos with which to fritter our "free" time away.

Two small volumes ought to convince a lot of teachers that "free" time isn't really free at all. For one thing, it is wrested from a reluctant nature only through the most exacting technological strategies—and if we don't use some of this free time to upgrade our skills, we may find that we've yo-yoed ourselves right out of this machine-based leisure. Leisure isn't free in another sense: we are living in a society that is much more demanding in terms of inter-

personal contacts and socially produced tensions. If we don't invest still more of our leisure in moral and intellectual maturity, we may find ourselves lost in a world made hostile by Little Rocks and Levittowns.

George Soule, an economist with an interest in the humanities, poses the preliminary attitude. "Perhaps it would be well to shut off the television set, leave the car in the garage, and silence the telephone long enough to engage in a little speculative reflection about the future of the civilization of which technological advance has turned out to be at once the motive power and the visible symbol." He raises the basic issues admirably: Will we run out of natural resources? Can man assume a more wholesome relationship to factorywork in the age of automation? Does the mad dash of getting and spending in itself make man insensitive to the only values worth getting or spending for? Can man in the era of technology master the art of spending time as well as of saving it? Is the vulgarity of the new mass leisure class intrinsic to its tastes and intelligence, or is it due merely to lack of practice?

Soule makes his own analyses (moderately hopeful) against a background of American and European intellectual history.

The collection of essays for the American Academy also contains a fine essay on the economics of leisure by Soule, a stimulating anthropological analysis of leisure in contemporary America by Margaret Mead, plus short pieces by a host of specialists on recreation for youth organizations, penal institutions, religious groups, industry, camping, the armed forces, and on the theory and training of recreation leaders. It is not a little discouraging to think that we are about to set up symposia and courses in "how to use leisure." I personally feel if a person is so little alive that he can't figure out for himself how to use his free time in rewarding

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ways, no undertaker can cure him with three credits or a sociological survey. But the signs are clear: the University of Chicago has a new center for the study of leisure, financed by the Ford Foundation; the Twentieth Century Fund has just undertaken a monumental study of the subject. Perhaps that's a safe way to use up academic leisure—though the hitch in the leisure revolution is that it actually increases the work of the professional classes. Teachers, doctors, ministers, and the related "service" professions are more badgered than ever because people have more time to want to be educated, more time to feel sick, more time to experience spiritual emptiness. What a treadmill! At any rate, in spite of the original and penetrating thoughts on leisure contained in these two volumes, I'm still haunted by the bored and boring faces of those teen-agers in their TV fish bowl of "fun." For their empty heads—shaken, rattled, and rolled—turn up the next morning in the classrooms of America. I don't envy their teachers.

P.D.H.

### *Self-Critical Media Professionals*

*Jubilee: One Hundred Years of the Atlantic*  
selected and edited by EDWARD WEEKS and  
EMILY FLINT. Boston: Little, Brown and Co.,  
1957. 746 pages, \$7.50.

"Mass Communications: an Atlantic Supplement," *Atlantic* (December, 1957). 82 pages, 60 cents.

*Life Photographers: Their Careers and Favorite Pictures* edited by STANLEY RAYFIELD. New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1957. 89 pages, illustrations, \$5.00.

Part of the improvements needed in our mass media if they are to nourish a maturing democratic society can come from the higher demands the mass patron learns to feel and express in school; but even more crucial is self-criticism on the part of media professionals. The three selections under discussion represent that kind of self-analysis as well as a celebration of individual excellence that leads to media prog-

ress. Paradoxically, these magazines and books from magazines are also excellent materials for creating a more demanding audience in the schools. The patron learns to appreciate the best efforts of the producer, who in turn can economically afford to present a higher percentage and level of excellence in his magazine.

Mr. Weeks claims with justice that his magazine has been in its first century "a faithful and in crises an inspired reflection of our national life." The book is not only useful for literature teachers in search of models illustrating America's literary growth; it is also a mine of insight about our political and economic and social history, partly because the magazine has always had a sensibly broad concept of the humanities, partly because the anthology is arranged topically—e.g., the Civil War, the city, biography, religion, the dignity of man, our present divided world.

The December "jubilee" issue on mass communication is convincing evidence that the *Atlantic* will exert an even stronger influence for good in the next hundred years of American democracy. Especially rewarding are the essays by Oscar Handlin on textbooks, Steve Allen on TV comedians, David Riesman on the new media, Alfred Knopf on changes in book publishing. Teachers who have not yet tried the splendid school editions of *Atlantic* ought to begin with back issues of this mass communication supplement. The larger anthology is a must for any good English classroom library.

The *Life* anthology, prepared by the same writer who did the earlier and interesting *How Life Gets the Story*, has the usual impeccable production values of that photomagazine. For those who glibly talk about mass media conformity, it is instructive to note how many individual styles of photography actually go into the magazine. This is something much more difficult to observe in the weekly issues of *Life*, since in a single issue editorial and advertising considerations make it harder to perceive how much of an individual photographer's point of view goes into a photostory. But when forty creative cameramen (and women—I have been operating under the illusion that Margaret Bourke-White was a sole exception) have two pages apiece to display their kind of photography, the interesting varieties of approach and style are manifest. This is not so important a book as the *Atlantic* centennial is, but it would be a very useful addition to any school library. Teachers can check it out from there for use with the opaque projector.

P.D.H.

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## TRANSCRIPTIONS

*A Lincoln Album*, readings by Carl Sandburg (Caedmon Records, TC 2015).

These readings are selected from Sandburg's *Abraham Lincoln: The Prairie Years* and *The War Years* to form a clear development of major themes in Lincoln's personal biography and in the terrifying political issues that rose to become crises as the months passed. Thus there is a concomitant shift of mood from the wry anecdotes of the young Illinois lawyer who was awkward in the presence of women to the new sense of urgency of the mature political figure of the "House Divided" speech of 1858 and the Cooper Union speech of 1860, the moving pleader of the First Inaugural, and finally the solemn, even somber, President of the terrible war years.

Sandburg's portrait, relying about equally upon his own words and Lincoln's but without awkwardness in transition, seeks always to preserve the man in the midst of the issues, to remind the listener that Lincoln found time for small matters as well as great ones. The balance is maintained so meticulously that neither political context nor warmly appealing human being is ever obscured.

Sandburg's reading itself is excellent. There are few of the mannerisms here that sometimes annoy when the poet is reading his poems. There is always a deep sense of engagement with his subject, a subtle meeting of tone and mood. If the voice is sometimes portentous, it is only to match the great drama of the man and the events in which he lived. This recording must take its place with the best we have among biographies in sound of great figures in American history.

"*Veep!*: Alben W. Barkley Tells His Own Story," interviewed by Sidney Shalett (Folkways Records, FS 3870).

As readers of political biography probably know, Sidney Shalett spent the summer of 1953 traveling about the United States and Canada with former Vice President Alben W. Barkley, then momentarily out of public office and taking an extended vacation. The trip produced a series of *Saturday Evening Post* articles and a book, *That Reminds Me—*. It also produced some forty-odd hours of tape recordings, from which Shalett has put together this record.

The words are trite but they are applicable here: this is a warmly human portrait of a remarkable personality. Those who look for serious analysis of the many important political

issues that touched the Veep's long public experience will be disappointed. He tells his side of the "Dear Alben" letter and the rift with Roosevelt, he recounts the uncertainty that Truman felt during his first days in the presidency, and he remarks wryly upon that 1952 Democratic convention that so disappointed him, but the emphasis is always anecdotal rather than analytical. The Veep of this recording is the tireless storyteller whose rambling anecdotes always induce the smile of a pleasurable anticipation that is never disappointed. Thus, whether they concern his Kentucky boyhood or such political giants as Uncle Joe Cannon, Mr. Barkley's reminiscences are the footnotes of history rather than its substance. In consequence of his personality and his gifts as a raconteur, they are thoroughly enjoyable footnotes.

The recording ends, as of course it must, with an excerpt from that speech at Washington and Lee in 1956 in which the Veep rose to his oratorical climax, stepped back to acknowledge the applause, and fell dead. The loss seems as great even now as it did then.

*Sounds of the American Southwest*, recorded in the Chiricahua Mountain region and in the Tucson region by Charles M. Bogert, Department of Amphibians and Reptiles, American Museum of Natural History, New York (Folkway Records, FX 122).

As one of the Folkways Science Series (other titles: *Sounds of the American Tropical Rain Forest*, *Sounds of the Sea*, *Sound Patterns*), this is a recording of the sounds made by representative animals, birds, insects, and reptiles of the Southwest in a variety of circumstances: giving their mating calls, squealing in fear, rattling in warning, singing for joy in a morning chorus.

The sounds are as remarkable as you might expect; the wing flutter of hummingbirds drinking at a spring can be fascinating. Two of the most memorable passages record a thunderstorm in the Chiricahua Mountains and the swift fury of the flash flood that follows it. In the accompanying brochure, Mr. Bogert has written a careful essay explaining how his subjects make their characteristic sounds and why, information that should be helpful to the teacher. One adverse criticism: a narrator to identify each sound as it appears on the record would be useful; as it is, the listener must pay close attention to the table of contents if he doesn't want to get a black-tailed rattlesnake mixed up with a canyon tree frog.

FRANK HODGINS  
University of Illinois

# ► Audio-Visual News ◄

By EVERETT B. LARE

## Maps and Globes \*

**AMERICAN GEOGRAPHERS SERIES:** Political maps; color; prices on rollers start at \$11.00 for one map up to \$131.50 for a set of eight; A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago 18, Ill.

A new set of maps consists of the following sections: United States, Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, Australia and Southeast Asia, Middle East, and the world. Contrasting colors are used for the subdivisions of each map. Heavy red lines with black dashes indicate political divisions. Rivers are marked by blue lines. Light red lines denote railroads. Names are printed in large clear type. Population of cities is indicated by a series of symbols. Each map contains a relief insert in shades of brown with names of physical features in red (scale about  $\frac{1}{4}$  normal size). The set of maps supplied this reviewer is mounted on the Multiple Chart Holder (\$74.00 for a set of eight). This may be hung on a map display rail or may be used on a tripod. Maps are available in economical Texoprint, a tough plastic-impregnated stock, or hand mounted, lithographed on paper, and then glued to muslin.

**NYSTROM PHYSICAL-POLITICAL RELIEF GLOBE:** 16-inch diameter; color; mounted on plastic ball with Gyro-Matic Mounting (\$39.50); other mounts available to \$65.25; A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago 18, Ill.

In the Gyro-Matic Mounting four feet hold the globe in a well-balanced position, tilted on its axis but free to turn either the northern or the southern hemisphere upright. Shaded color is used to show physical features. Red lines indicate political divisions. Rivers are in blue.

## New Science Films

**You and Your Eyes:** 10 mins.; color (\$100); Walt Disney Productions, 16-mm Division, 2400 W. Alameda Ave., Burbank, Calif.

Human eyes, because of their rods and cones, can do things that eyes of other animals cannot. Humans can read, distinguish color, and judge distances. We should observe a few simple health rules to protect them.

**Amphibians:** 10 mins.; black and white (\$55.00); color (\$100); Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill.

Main emphasis on the life cycle of the frog.

**Earthworms:** 10 mins.; color (\$100); Pat Dowling Pictures, 1056 S. Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles 35, Calif.

A study of the common earthworm, including its life, adaptations, and value to the soil.

**Understanding Our Universe:** 10 mins.; black and white (\$55.00); color (\$100); Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill.

Pictures of the stars, sunspots, and an eclipse of the sun. Shows how the telescope has expanded our understanding.

**Irrigation:** 15 mins.; black and white (\$75.00); color (\$150); McGraw-Hill Textfilms, 330 W. 42d St., New York 36, N.Y.

Irrigation is traced from ancient times. Pictures show how the American Southwest has been changed from desert to profitable farming land. Hoover Dam is one of the projects shown.

**Drilling for Oil:** 22 mins.; color (\$200); Pat Dowling Pictures, 1056 S. Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles 35, Calif.

The process of drilling an oil well is explained in detail from the first explorations to the bringing in of the well. Many technical terms and unusual occupations are explained.

**Earthquakes and Volcanoes:** 13 mins.; black and white (\$62.50); color (\$125); Film Associates of California, 10521 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif.

Shows the location of most volcanoes. A cross-section drawing of the earth explains the inner composition. Probable causes of earthquakes and volcanoes are explained.

**Continental Glaciers:** 13 mins.; color (\$150); Department of Photography, Motion Picture Division, Ohio State University, Columbus.

A visual tour of a glacier is made in Greenland. Answers are given to scientific questions about it.

## Correction

The film, *Make a House Model*, reviewed in this section in March, was credited to the wrong producer. The correct source for the film is Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, Calif.

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